The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 7, 1893.

The Week.

THERE have been three great and most encouraging victories of public opinion this year—the passage of the silver-repeal bill, the defeat of Maynard, and Mr. Van Alen's resignation. All three show how impossible it is for any abuse to stand up under concentrated and well-directed public censure. Of the first two it is needless now to say anything, but the last calls for a word or two in view of Mr. Cleveland's letter. In the first place he says he did not select Mr. Van Alen for nomination to the Italian mission "without satisfying himself of his entire fitness for the place." We believe it has been generally conceded that, everything considered, Mr. Van Alen was as fit for the place as many of his predecessors; but that is not the question in this case. The question is, how did Mr. Cleveland come to investigate Mr. Van Alen's fitness for the place? What led him to leave the world of politics, and law, and literature, and diplomacy, and penetrate into the world of pure fashion in search of a candidate for the Italian mission? The public have assumed that he did so in consequence of a large contribution by Mr. Van Alen to the fund used in electing the appointing officer, and its view has been confirmed, or at all events excused, by the account of the transaction by both Mr. Whitney and Mr. Van Alen himself. Moreover, Mr. Cleveland was fully warned, before he made the appointment, that, although he might make it on the ground of fitness solely, people would say and believe that he made it for cash, and that, therefore, in making it he would lose the high moral position he had so far held. He chose to disregard this consideration, and we see the result: Mr. Van Alen has resigned, and the President is discredited with that portion of the public whose good opinion has been to him during the last ten eventful years his proudest boast and strongest defence.

We are very sorry that he has thought fit to talk of "malignant criticism," and inform us that "the decent people who have doubted its [the nomination's] propriety have been misled, or have missed the actual considerations on which it rests." He knows surely that it is not "malignant criticism" which has damaged Mr. Van Alen. That would never have driven him to resign. It is the criticism of "the decent people," or, in other words, of the great body of Mr. Cleveland's supporters. We are quite sure we are within the mark when we say that nine-tenths of those who voted for him, of whatever position in life, deplored this appointment. We have ourselves never met one who did not. The best, and indeed only, defence of it we have seen was that Mr. Whitney could not in such a case be resisted—which, of course, availed nothing in the teeth of Mr. Cleveland's numerous discourses on morality in politics. And Mr. Cleveland's friends all over the country will read with positive affliction the news that the "decent people" are all wrong, and have "missed the actual considerations" upon which the appointment was made. This view of the "decent people" ought to have been left to McKinley, who, we believe, started it in defence of his bill. The notion that the people do not understand the acts of their own servants, was one of the humors of the canvass of last year which furnished much merriment at the time.

One of the best things in the President's message is his remarks on the definitive abandonment of the claim that we have a right to convert our legations in South America into asylums for local criminals. It is of course an extremely insulting claim to any Government against whom it is asserted; and we chose to assert it, through the instrumentality of Pat Egan, against Chili in a moment of great trial and distress, and he actually plumed himself greatly on his success in keeping a lot of notorious rascals out of the hands of the police, after their chief had blown his brains out. Not only this, but the natural irritation of the Chilians over his goings on was used here to stimulate the hostility to them and justify an armed attack on them. The President now justly observes:

> "The doctrine of asylum, as applied to this case, is not sanctioned by the best precedents, and, when allowed, tends to encourage sedition and strife. Under no circumstances can the representatives of this Government be permitted, under the ill-defined fiction of extra-territoriality, to interrupt the administration of criminal justice in the countries to which they are accredited. A temperate demand having been made by the Chilian Government for the correction of this conduct in the instance mentioned, the minister was instructed no longer to harbor the offenders."

This is a bad blow to Pat Egan, who is, we believe, in these parts, but happily no longer wearing the robes of a "Blaine Irishman," that office having been abolished.

Secretary Herbert's annual report and recommendations are couched in so moderate a tone that it seems ungracious to object to anything in either. To be let off with one battle-ship and six torpedo-boats, requiring an immediate appropriation of little more than $500,000, is a novel experience, and we will not too curiously inquire whether it is solely due to the Treasury deficiency. But we must point out that, if the secretary's argument for this slight increase in our naval strength is sound, he is really derelict in not urging the immediate building of at least fifty battle-ships. He insists that our unarmored cruisers are not fighting-vessels, and that our four first-class and two second-class battle-ships, even if concentrated, would "scarcely be able to create a diversion of an enemy's fleet," and correctly infers that "if our Government in the future is to have naval strength enough to command the peace and to enforce the terms dictated by its sense of right and justice, it must have more battle-ships." Many more, indeed, and if Mr. Herbert thinks that war is as imminent as he appears to, it is little short of treasonable in him to recommend only a single new ship. One more would be simply a target for the enemy's guns. We must have ships enough to outnumber any possible combination that might be made against us. In no other way can we get that "assured strength" which the secretary believes to be our aim in naval matters. One beggarly new ship would contribute so little to this that we should not be surprised if Congress thought it not worth while to build it at all.

The Post-office Department does not make a good showing in revenues for the fiscal year ending with last June. Mr. Wanamaker estimated that the annual deficiency would be only a trifle over a million and a half dollars, whereas it exceeds five millions. He also figured on a surplus of nearly a million for the current fiscal year, whereas Mr. Bissell thinks the deficiency will be nearly $3,000,000 greater than for the year which closed last summer. Undoubtedly Mr. Wanamaker made his showing much more favorable than the facts really justified, yet it is true that nobody could have anticipated so great a deficiency. Mr. Bissell thinks that the influence of the hard times upon the postal revenues began to be felt even before the end of June, and the effect must have been far greater since then.

The Government receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, were about $2,000,000 in excess of the expenditures. For the present fiscal year it is expected that they will be $28,000,000 less than the expenditures. This estimate is on the basis of the present revenue laws. It is a noteworthy fact that the amount disbursed by the Government for first payments in pensions during the last fiscal year was a little more than the estimated deficit of the present year. It

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was about $33,000,000. The first payments embrace the arrears. They consist principally of "back pay," and they have to be paid only once. Whenever these arrears are eliminated from the pension appropriation bills, the disbursements will fall off at least $33,000,000, but probably more, since the list itself is constantly diminishing by the death of pensioners and by the arrival of their children at mature years. It is very clear, therefore, that the additional revenue required to carry on the Government will not be a permanent public burden if there are no further outbreaks of pension profligacy on the part of Congress. We are not likely to have any such while the present Administration remains in power. There is a strong probability that the pension appropriation for the next fiscal year—the year ending June 30, 1895—will be $7,000,000 to $10,000,000 less than for the present year, and that they will shrink steadily after that time. In other words, the condition which Garfield supposed had come nearly twenty years ago will actually arrive two years hence, unless another pension debauch should take place.

Another fact is now pretty plain. The additional revenue cannot be secured during the present fiscal year to meet the deficit of $28,000,000, or whatever it may be. The new taxes cannot be gathered in with sufficient promptness. Time is required to put the taxing machinery in operation, whatever it may be. Therefore some temporary expedient is called for. A business man, under such circumstances, if his credit were good, would borrow. This is what the Government will be obliged to do. There are, however, different methods of borrowing. This being only a temporary deficit, the borrowing should be only temporary—something in the nature of the exchequer bills which the English Treasury puts out in like emergencies. These are interest-bearing Treasury notes. They do not go into circulation, they are not legal tender. They should be payable at the pleasure of the Government on three months' notice and should bear just sufficient interest to make them salable at par. They should be offered to the Government's creditors, including the pensioners, at par, but of course no creditor would be obliged to take them. Such as are not so taken would be offered to the public and would be taken probably at as low a rate as 2½, perhaps at 2 per cent. interest. If Congress would authorize the issue of $50,000,000 of such Treasury notes, to be used as required, the financial difficulties of the Government would disappear at once. This measure would not obviate the necessity of additional taxation, but it would bridge over the present embarrassment in the least burdensome manner, and would give new confidence to the business community. There is hardly anything so bad for an individual or for a Government as postponing one's daily bills. Our Government took up this practice during the last year of the Harrison Administration, and has never had the means to stop it since.

Fresh fish are put on the free list by the Wilson bill, exclaims the *Tribune* in agonized tones. This is proof, not only of the destruction of American industry, but of the subserviency of President Cleveland to British interests. But what shall we say of the Republican tariffs from 1861 down to the McKinley bill, all of which put fresh fish on the free list? An investigation of our tariff history will disclose these facts, namely: (1) that the tariff of 1857, enacted by a Democratic Congress, put a duty of 15 per cent. on fresh fish; (2) that the Morrill tariff of 1861 put fresh fish on the free list; (3) that all the Republican tariff revisions down to 1883 left it on the free list; (4) that the tariff of 1883 expressly put fresh fish on the free list, with the words "for immediate consumption" added. This phrase was of very little practical importance—how little, will appear from the Treasury rulings on the subject. These rulings declared that fish frozen artificially were dutiable, but that those frozen naturally were not dutiable; and that those packed in ice were not dutiable if the collector judged that they were intended for immediate consumption; also, that live fish in barrels were not dutiable. Eliminating all the fish importations thus declared not dutiable, we have a small residue upon which a duty might be collected. It is this residue which assumes such magnitude in the *Tribune's* eye that "statues in honor of President Cleveland might well be raised in the public squares of Toronto, Montreal, Quebec, and Halifax." *Vive la bagatelle!*

The address which the most eminent and respected members of the Democratic party in this city have put forth, calling for a party reorganization, is the most encouraging public document that has been issued in this State since the Bar Association's arraignment of Maynard. The two deliverances have a common origin. Each is a protest from the outraged moral sentiment of the body from which it comes. The Bar Association was forced, in order to preserve its own character and self-respect, to say that Maynard was unfit for the bench. To have remained silent about him would have been to acquiesce in his preferment. In the same way the honest members of the Democratic party have been compelled, after protesting formally and effectively in 1892 against the corrupting and disgracing control of their party organization by the Hill-Murphy-McLaughlin-Croker machine, to come out now and call for a complete reorganization in order that the good name of the party may be restored to it. Instead of acting hastily in this matter, the respectable element of the party has been not merely deliberate but inexplicably dilatory. There has been no doubt for fully seven years of the bad and dishonest character of the leadership which reached its culminating achievement in Maynard's nomination. That character was revealed immediately after Mr. Hill came into the governorship in 1885, when he arranged the "deal" with Squire for control of the work of constructing the new aqueduct. From that time till the nomination of Maynard the downward course of the party has been undeviating and unbroken.

Mayor-elect Schieren of Brooklyn has justified the confidence of Independents in his backbone by his first selection for his cabinet, that term being applied in Brooklyn to the heads of the important departments. Ever since election the leaders and spokesmen of the Republican machine have been insisting that he should appoint Republicans to office, and "Republicans without exception," to quote from the *Tribune* when it attempted to lay down the law for him a fortnight ago. Mr. Schieren's response is the appointment to the most important of all the departments—the commissionership of city works, with its control of the streets, of the sewers, of the water supply, and, above all, of a vast amount of "patronage"—of Mr. Alfred T. White, a typical Independent, who is the foe of all machines. Mr. White used to be a Republican, but, like Mr. Schieren, bolted the nomination of Mr. Blaine in 1884; he has continued to support the Democratic candidate for President in both of the national campaigns since then. In city affairs he has supported the best man without regard to party lines, and he was a warm supporter of Mr. Low in both of his campaigns for the mayoralty. He is the furthest possible remove from the professional politician of the "Al" Daggett and "Mike" Dady type, who have so long cursed the Republican party in Brooklyn, being a business man of high standing, a citizen of great public spirit, a philanthropist who has been practical enough to erect successful "model tenement houses," and a thorough believer in civil-service reform.

The lynching mania is spreading, or, we should rather say, lawlessness is spreading. No wonder the train-robbers are active when the following appears in the *Iowa State Register*, the most widely circulated paper in Iowa, edited by Mr. Clarkson, assistant postmaster-general under President Harrison, and the Northern paper which has for years

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been most sedulous in lecturing the South for lawlessness. The citizens of Ottumwa in that State recently lynched a man named Gustafson, in the regular Southern fashion, for an assault on a little girl. Now hear the editor of the *Register:*

"The laws, courts, and juries have become harbors for criminals, and demagogue and anarchist Governors are rapidly defeating the few instances in which justice has been and is being meted out in the courts. The people are daily becoming more greatly disgusted over the increase in crime, the laxity of courts and juries, and the base actions of Governors who seek to perpetuate themselves in office by pardoning criminals. Lynchings will become more numerous until the law, courts, juries, and Governors realize that justice must and shall be promptly meted out to all criminals. The editor of the *Register* endorses the action of the citizens of Ottumwa in lynching Brute Gustafson, and will personally aid in executing similar punishment for a similar most horrible crime whenever the occasion and duty present themselves. Innocent and defenceless children and women must be protected at all hazards."

"The people," it appears, in Iowa have become "disgusted with the law, courts, and juries," and their only remedy seems to be to form mobs, headed by editors, to kill people without trial. We presume the history of all free countries might be searched in vain for a similarly impudent confession of the failure of popular government. The implication that laws, courts and juries and Governors exist independently of the people, and without responsibility on the part of the people, is very droll.

Another case of a similar kind has occurred in Whitehall, Ill. A man, hitherto considered respectable, a piano-tuner, was there also accused of assaulting a girl. Here is what then happened, according to a despatch to the New York *Herald:*

"He was arrested, but, before his preliminary hearing could be had, a mob numbering probably 100 men took him from the constable and hurried him to a field near the town. Here he was released and the mob set upon him with stones and clubs. His pleadings for mercy were not heeded, and he was literally pounded to a pulp by the stones that were showered upon him. His body presented a sickening sight when the mob had completed its brutal work. The face and head were a bleeding mass, none of the features being recognizable, while many of the bones of the body were broken. When they were satisfied that Morrison was dead, the members of the mob retired, leaving the body lying in the field."

The mob was probably largely composed of the worthless wretches who, in every place, enjoy the sight of suffering and perhaps vary the diversion of lynching by the diversion of train-robbing. The risks to which individuals are exposed in such communities is frightful, for a false charge will set a mob in motion just as readily as a true one. It is said that the Illinois lynchers will be "vigorously prosecuted," but how can they be vigorously prosecuted when, in the adjoining State, the editor of a leading newspaper offers to go to a lynching himself in person, and apparently treats courts and juries as irresponsible bodies?

No changes as yet proposed in the rules of football will satisfy those parents and guardians who are alarmed and disgusted by the prominence given to the game in the leading colleges, by the enormous amount of attention paid to it and to athletics generally by the undergraduates, by the fame it brings to the successful practitioners, and by the connivance of the faculties at the undergraduate view that the winning of games is the best service a young man can render to his university, or, as the phrase goes, the best mode of "testifying his devotion to his Alma Mater." This is the evil which no modification in the mode of playing the game can cure, and it is, for our time and country, an enormous evil. Who that read the account of the rejoicings at Princeton over the victory of last week, and the speeches of the professors to the mob of students, from the president down, would imagine that the place in which this occurred was not a gymnasium or a circus, but a seat of learning? The college bell was rung for four hours; the students paraded the little town in a triumphal procession, blowing foghorns and beating drums and tin pans through the greater part of the night. Dr. Patton, the president, told them "it was a glorious day for Princeton," Dr. Green that "Yale was nowhere and Princeton everywhere," and Dean Murray "announced that if they would wait until next week, they would be given an opportunity and every assistance to have as glorious a celebration as possible." This celebration came off on Monday night, and was infinitely grotesque.

There is very great, and apparently not unreasonable, alarm in England over the size of the combined Russian and French fleets. It has long been the policy of the British Admiralty to keep up a fleet superior in force to any two foreign fleets. It has been discovered, since the recent tremendous fraternization between the French people and the Russian navy, that the combined Russian and French navies in the Mediterranean will surpass the British force at that point in both ships and guns. There is the usual dispute between experts as to the correctness of the various calculations, but enough remains unquestioned to cause serious alarm in England. The Tories are, of course, making the most of the situation, and Lord Salisbury, in a recent speech, spoke strongly of the terrible effect on English commerce of even the temporary possession of the Channel by a foreign enemy. But it is difficult to see how the Channel is to be kept safe for commerce, no matter what the size of the navy is. No great naval war in Europe has broken out since the introduction of steam, and it is impossible for any one to predict with accuracy what the fate of English commerce, in any such contingency, would be. But there seems to be little doubt that no possible additions to the British navy would enable commerce to go on unchecked. The French ports would be filled with small steamers, which, no longer dependent on the wind as in the old wars, would rush in and out with impunity and do enough damage to the British carrying-trade certainly to make it unprofitable. This would be true of the Mediterranean as well as of the Channel. According to present appearances, too, most of the great ironclads would go to the bottom in a great naval battle. In fact, the tremendous commercial and manufacturing prosperity of England since 1815 has had the unfortunate effect of rendering her exceedingly vulnerable, no matter what her naval defences may be.

Prof. Tyndall was one of the three or four men who have made English science in the nineteenth century famous for its union of German throughness of research with French lucidity of exposition. A great part of the influence of his writings, as of those of Huxley and Prof. Foster and, in a less degree, Darwin, has been due to the wonderful clearness and charm of their style. Clear thinking was no doubt responsible for a good share of the clear writing, but over and above this he must have had a special gift for popular presentation of scientific results. It is doubtless true that the world must assign the supremacy to the ponderous scientific learning of the Germans, but we may yet hope that the typical scientist of the future may be nearer like those Englishmen we have mentioned, who smelted their ore instead of flinging it out in amorphous masses. Tyndall came into great disrepute with the religious world in 1872 by his bold suggestion that the efficacy of prayer be made a subject of scientific experiment. In this he was substantially anticipated in Hawaii, where the natives, years before, had challenged the missionaries to a competitive test of the value of prayer and of heathen sacrifices as a means of stopping the dangerous flow of lava from Mauna Loa. The doctrine of prayer now held by intelligent Christians has made Tyndall's "prayer-gauge" obsolete, as far as they are concerned. He allowed the last years of his life to be embittered by political controversies in which he had a perfect right to take a part, but in which it was little short of ridiculous to assume that he could speak with the same authority as about radiant heat or spontaneous generation.

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STEVENS'S DEFENCE.

In Lanman's 'Biographical Annals' we find the following entry: "Stevens, John Leavitt, . . . studied theology, and at the age of twenty-four was ordained a minister of the Universalist church; . . . then became associated with James G. Blaine in the ownership and management of the *Kennebec Journal*." These biographical items go far towards explaining the extraordinary document with which the ex-minister to Hawaii broke in upon the Thanksgiving repose of the American people. Its vigor of pious blackguardism, and its intimate acquaintance with the nameless and abhorrent sins of inconvenient witnesses who expose the author's crookedness, are better understood with that early record before the eye, while its furious parading of irrelevant matter, and its abnormal acuteness in detecting the corrupt schemes of England, are the legitimate fruit of association with James G. Blaine.

Mr. Stevens's defence, in fact, is best described as an afterglow of the Blaine school of politics. Confronted with a legal case made up by a trained lawyer, he kicks up a tremendous dust over points not at issue, lets loose an avalanche of scurrilous epithets with Christian adjectives attached, shouts loudly that England, or at any rate Japan, is back of the attacks upon his veracity, and sedulously avoids mention of the evidence, much of it documentary and signed by his own name, which convicts him of being a conspirator and a falsifier. Blaine himself could not have done it better.

The real strength of the case against Stevens was never so clear as when read in the light of his defence. The evidence of witnesses whose character he does not undertake to impeach, and of documents whose existence he ignores, are alone sufficient to sustain the charges against him. Granting the truth of every word he says, the facts and evidence to which he does not make the faintest allusion are enough to convict him. The testimony of Mr. Wunderberg, a member of the committee of safety, is not referred to by Mr. Stevens. Uncontradicted, it proves that he (Stevens) was in league with the revolutionists beforehand, had promised them to land the troops in their aid, and to recognize them as the Hawaiian Government the moment they read a proclamation at the Government building "or any other building at Honolulu." The testimony of Mr. Damon, president of the advisory council of the provisional government, Mr. Stevens nowhere touches upon. Uncontradicted, it proves that Stevens recognized "about eighteen men in all," sneaking through the streets so as to avoid arrest by the police, as the *de facto* government of the country, though they were not in possession of a single Government building. We should have been glad of less information about the gambling and licentious habits of witnesses whose testimony is not material, and more about the witnesses just named. But Mr. Stevens seems to think that, by his refusing to "recognize" them, they will be blotted out of existence.

Then there is the documentary evidence which the ex-minister forgets to mention. There is the written appeal to him of the committee of safety, asking him to land troops on the distinct ground that "we are unable to protect ourselves without aid." There is the formal protest of the Queen's Government the same day against landing the troops, with the assurance that the police and military forces were ample to preserve order and to protect American property. There is also the protest of the Governor of the island, A. S. Cleghorn. It is true, Stevens does dispose of him by showing that he was only an "honorary" Governor at best, and, what is pretty damaging, "a brother-in-law to the fallen Liliuokalani," and, what is absolutely fatal, "the reputed father of the so-called Princess now residing in England, *whose half-sister is married to the English minister's son.*" After such an annihilating stroke, it seems hard to go back to the law of the case, and ask, as both the local and the general governments did, what right Stevens had to land troops. It really is not a complete answer to say that somebody's half-sister is married to the English minister's son, but we suspect it is the only answer we shall ever get from Stevens.

One other of the vital points Stevens fumbles over, which shows that he is aware of the pickle the documents leave him in. In his despatch to Secretary Foster he said that he did not recognize the provisional government until after it was in "possession of the Government buildings, archives, and treasury." This was given the lie by Mr. Damon, and is also in direct contradiction with an extant letter from President Dole, thanking him for his "recognition," and requesting "the immediate support of the United States forces" so as to enable the new Government to get possession of what Stevens deceitfully told Foster it was already in possession of. Stevens now says that the Queen's forces "must have surrendered in a few hours," anyhow, as they were "surrounded"—we presume by those "eighteen men in all." This is a clear admission that he lied to Secretary Foster, as he did again, by implication, when he said that the other foreign ministers "promptly recognized" the provisional government, the fact being that none of them did so till the next day.

The merits of the controversy are now clearly before the public. On the one hand is the carefully prepared legal case of Mr. Blount, with its array of authenticated testimony, and documentary evidence. On the other is the *Kennebec Journal* harangue of Mr. Stevens, filled with personal assaults and irrelevancies, but carefully avoiding the crucial and cumulative evidence against him. If that is his best defence, he has no defence.

THE ATHLETIC CRAZE.

We are glad that the Harvard Overseers have appointed a committee to investigate the game of football in its various aspects. We are also glad to learn that there is to be this winter a convention of the deities of the football world, to revise the rules, and probably abolish the "flying wedge" and other dangerous features of the present game. So far so good. But we would respectfully ask the college faculties whether they propose this winter to take any action looking to the reform of the game, and indeed all college games, on the moral side. We refer them to some paragraphs in *Harper's Weekly* on Phillips Exeter Academy, which show the effect that the inordinate attention given to athletics in colleges is having on the young boys in the preparatory schools. How many of them who have the size and weight qualifying to row or play football now think of the college to which they are going as a seat of learning? The practice, on the part of the athletic element in the colleges, of seeking them out, and bribing them by offers of a free education to come to one college rather than another, has become unhappily common, and has ceased to seem discreditable; that is, very young boys are invited to become professionals, and to take what is in reality a salary for acting as football players in the guise of students. That the faculties play into the hands of these debauchers of youth by being easy with these young professionals in the examinations and recitations is at least generally believed. Can nothing be done to suppress or make disgraceful this abuse of allowing professional athletes to haunt the college buildings as sham students? Is not the presence of such men at all in colleges highly demoralizing, and likely to confuse the minds of freshmen as to the ends for which colleges exist?

Is it possible, again, that the faculties, say of Yale and Princeton, look with equanimity on the enormous sums of money now received as gate-money every year in athletics by these young men *in statu pupillari*, and on the very large sums which change hands by betting in what may be called the collegiate world, beginning with the children who are preparing for college in the schools? We are informed on good authority that Yale spent last year about $47,000 on athletics, and the team went to Springfield the other day with three drawing-room cars and fifty men as substitutes, doctors, trainers, rubbers, and cooks.

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The receipts on Thursday from the gate-money in New York cannot have fallen far short of $50,000. It was earned by exhibiting feats of strength and agility by scholars and gentlemen before an enormous city crowd, in which the gambling fraternity and the prostitutes were very prominent. Here is the *Tribune's* account of the appearance of the defeated team when the game was over:

"About the entrance to the hotel were perhaps five hundred people waiting to see what a defeated Yale team looked like. And they saw. But they never saw a more woe-begone, used-up, pale-faced, bruised, and bloodied lot of respectable, healthy, sane young men before. One by one the players crawled down off the coach and passed into the hotel through the alley made by the police through the crowd. Two of the players had to be helped, half carried by substitutes. The men had come directly from the field and were in their battle clothes. Their faces were muddy and marked with bloody streaks; their sweaters were stained and reddened, their heads a mass of tangled hair. In their dilapidated condition, marked with defeat, they did not look the strong, powerful young giants that had driven away from the hotel so full of confidence and sure of victory earlier in the day."

Is this an exhibition before a waiting hotel crowd in which any man who has sense enough and money enough to send his son to college would care to have him figure?

We are not inveighing against athletic games. If the colleges were to-morrow to make football compulsory for every man in them, we should not say a word in objection. We are simply asking for moderation and decency. It seems to be the weakness of the American people to take nearly everything in "crazes." There was the greenback craze, and the silver craze, and the granger craze, and the cholera craze, and now there is the athletic craze, and the leading colleges are becoming huge training-grounds for young gladiators, around whom nearly as many spectators roar as roared in the Flavian amphitheatre.

As far as can be ascertained, the thing which produces most of the evils of football and other games is the effort to improve them as a spectacle for the multitude. All the good which the amateurs of the game say results from training for it and playing it could be obtained just as well by playing on the college grounds without any spectators at all. By carrying it to the neighborhood of populous towns and cities, it takes on promptly the character of the horse-race. It furnishes to the gambling fraternity something of which they are constantly in search—an interesting event of uncertain result—and sets free from the restraints of home and friends a large body of youths in a state of great excitement. One of its worst results is, however, that it frightens "the plain people" away from the colleges. The modest father who is willing to pinch himself and wife and daughters in order to give a son a college education, is appalled by what he hears and sees of the results of a football match. Debt, drink, debauchery rise up before his mind's eye as a probable concomitant of "college training," and he decides to keep his pet lamb at home. The colleges are not drawing as they ought on this class. The wealthy men are going to them in greater and greater numbers, but it is not they who keep alive the traditions of American scholarship, or show the world what a college education can do by way of preparation for life. Of the effect on the members of the various teams of the conspicuousness in which they pass some months of every year, of the interviews, the newspaper gossip, and portraits, we will not speak, as nothing definite can be known about it. But if much remains of "the modest stillness and humility" which is, the poet says, so becoming in time of peace, after training for two or three matches, they must be almost more than human.

LIQUOR LEGISLATION.

It is not without significance that while the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics has been occupied in studying the methods of regulating the traffic in alcoholic drink employed in Scandinavia, the methods in use in this country have been undergoing investigation by some foreign inquirers. At the request of Mr. W. Rathbone, M.P., Mr. E. L. Fanshawe, a London barrister, has just devoted eight months of careful study to the liquor laws of our States and of the provinces of Canada. He has also endeavored to ascertain the effects of these laws by the comparison of statistics and through the testimony of witnesses. By the terms of his commission, Mr. Fanshawe was to investigate without bias, and without reference to the support of any particular line of legislation. The result of his labors is now published by Cassell & Co. in a compact and well-indexed volume, and it is difficult to conceive an investigation carried on with greater impartiality. If Mr. Fanshawe had any prepossessions, he has not disclosed them; and if he has formed any conclusions, he keeps them religiously to himself.

What struck Mr. Fanshawe first and most forcibly in comparing the situation here with that in Great Britain was the fact that not only our legislatures, but also our courts, hold that liquor-dealers have no rights that other people are bound to respect. They are not shielded by the constitutional prohibition of the deprivation of property without due process of law. The Legislature of Kansas enacted that the manufacture of beer was a crime, and that a brewery was a nuisance to be summarily abated; and a brewer whose business was stopped and whose apparatus was destroyed by the officers of the law, at an admitted loss to him of thousands of dollars, was declared by the Supreme Court of the United States to have suffered no wrong. As to compensation to liquor-sellers suddenly deprived of their licenses, the very idea would seem so strange to most Americans as to require explanation. It is true that we sometimes hear it urged that local option or prohibition is an unjustifiable interference with individual liberty, but those who bring forward this argument receive little attention. It seems to be tacitly agreed that it is wise and just to make it as inconvenient as possible to procure alcoholic drink, although if a man can get it he is at perfect liberty to use it, and nothing is more common than to see people who would as soon be without food and clothing in the house as without whiskey voting to make criminals of those who furnish them with this indispensable article.

Such conduct is explained as due to hostility to the "saloon." As Mr. Fanshawe points out, the American liquor-saloon and the British public-house are quite different institutions. They differ principally because Americans do not as a rule partake of alcoholic drinks when eating, while the English do. But Americans do partake of both wine and spirits—though not of beer—to a greater extent than the English, and as they do not get them with their meals they get them at bars. This, of course, leads to treating and to spending much time in saloons. A great many men frequent bar-rooms, but refuse to have liquors upon their tables at home, thinking it a "bad example," and fearing that their children may develop uncontrollable appetites. A great many, it may be added, although Mr. Fanshawe does not refer to the cause specifically, abstain from drinking at home out of regard for or fear of the prejudices of the women of their families. All these influences tend to magnify the importance of the saloon, and to make its temptations to young men more potent. So long as people will drink, and are prevented by public opinion from drinking at their meals, either at home or elsewhere, it seems to follow necessarily that they should patronize the clubs and saloons.

Upon the operation of prohibitory laws Mr. Fanshawe has collected a great deal of testimony. It is, as might be expected, largely inconsistent and contradictory. The figures regarding crime and pauperism in the United States are notoriously untrustworthy, and no valid inferences can be drawn from them as to the influence of the liquor laws. Nor can much dependence be placed upon comparative returns of the number of arrests for drunkenness in different communities, or even in the same community at different times. That prohibition reduces the number of saloons in the rural districts is generally admitted; but, on the other hand, it is maintained that in large towns it has the opposite effect. One of its curious results

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is that it greatly lessens the consumption of fermented as compared with distilled liquors; the traffic being illicit, the article having the greatest potency in the smallest bulk is necessarily selected. Upon the whole, Mr. Fanshawe's collection of opinions upon this subject leaves us nearly as it finds us—quite unable to come to any conclusion. The fact that large numbers of persons take out United States internal-revenue licenses in the prohibition States is perhaps the most convincing piece of evidence that is adduced.

As to the effect of laws requiring the payment of high fees for licenses to sell liquors, the evidence is stronger and comparatively free from contradiction. In some communities these laws are not rigidly enforced, but in others it appears to be universally agreed that there is little evasion. In such communities the law is in effect prohibitory in sparsely settled regions, as the demand is not sufficient to make the sale profitable; and in the cities the number of drinking-places, especially of the more disorderly kinds, is generally diminished. Whether the aggregate consumption of liquors is lessened, it is impossible to say. It appears to be the general impression that it is, but on the other hand the revenue from excise keeps even pace with the growth of population.

The policy of holding liquor-sellers responsible in damages for selling to minors and known drunkards appears to be quite successful, and is likely to be extensively adopted. Few persons, indeed, are found to take exception to it. The faltering and timid steps that have been taken in the direction of treating drunkenness as an offence and increasing the length of sentences for persistent offenders are carefully noted by Mr. Fanshawe. If it can once be established that responsibility attaches to the drinking of liquor as well as to the sale of it, we shall have begun the solution of the liquor problem. Meanwhile it may certainly be said that our country owes thanks to Mr. Rathbone and Mr. Fanshawe for their admirable and disinterested contribution to its knowledge of itself. Their essay is full of interesting particulars as to the success of special laws in a number of communities, to which we cannot refer. Whoever wishes to form an intelligent opinion about the regulation of the liquor traffic by law cannot do better than consult this exhaustive and impartial work. He will find no conclusions thrust upon him, but he will be put in position to reach conclusions of his own.

COURT AND LEGISLATURE.

NEITHER the *Harvard Law Review*, nor any of our legal periodicals, has given us for a long time a more interesting study of a vital subject than Prof. Thayer's on the "Origin and Scope of the American Doctrine of Constitutional Law." The paper was first read before the Congress on Jurisprudence and Law Reform in Chicago, and was then published in the October number of the *Harvard Law Review;* it is now republished in pamphlet form by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The title is somewhat too broad for the subject carefully investigated and philosophically discussed, namely, the assumed power, as it may be termed, of the American judiciary to do what the judiciary of no other nation has ever done—to annul an act of the Legislature by declaring it to be absolutely void.

The assumption of this power seems to run through gradations somewhat like these: (1) As was pithily said by De Lolme, "English lawyers hold that Parliament can do anything except make a man a woman or a woman a man"; (2) certain loose assertions in "the books" that what is contrary to natural equity and reason is void—which, however, is much reduced by the great commentator whom Gibbon sarcastically calls "the orthodox Judge Blackstone," for he dutifully says that "if the Parliament will positively enact a thing to be done which is unreasonable, I know of no power in the ordinary forms of the Constitution that is vested with authority to control it"; (3) the immediate and inevitable but reluctant genesis of the American idea as early as 1787, when a State court (in North Carolina), "after every reasonable endeavor had been used in vain for avoiding a disagreeable difference between the Legislature and the judicial power of the State, at length, with much apparent reluctance, but with great deliberation and firmness, gave their opinion separately but unanimously," etc., etc. (Bayard vs. Singleton). In this cautious, reluctant decision, moreover, it should be noticed that the constitutional right upheld was one precious in the sight of any Anglo-Saxon community, the right of trial by jury. In these early cases, too, the judiciary justified their action by illustrations of possible extreme abuses, such as if the Legislature should declare their own office to be for life where the Constitution limited the term; or should vest executive power in one of their own committees where the Constitution vested it in the Governor. Here parenthetically it should be said that, in Virginia, the doctrine had been enunciated earlier, and with exceptional courage and distinctness (see the *Nation* No. 1476, pp. 269, 270). (4.) The generally received doctrine of the present day, which has been as well stated by a judge of this State, the late Ira Harris, as by any. He is thus quoted by Professor Thayer: "A legislative act is not to be declared void upon a mere conflict of interpretation between the legislative and judicial powers. Before proceeding to annul by judicial sentence what has been enacted by the law-making power, it should clearly appear that the act cannot be supported by any reasonable intendment or allowable presumption."

A lay reader cannot apprehend, or at least will not be apt to suspect, the latitude which lies within the practical applications of this rule. Paradoxical as it may seem, a judge can hold a statute to be constitutional which, as an individual, he would condemn as unconstitutional. As judges refuse to set aside a verdict on the ground that it is against the weight of evidence, though as jurors they never would have agreed to it, so courts will refuse to annul an act of the Legislature, though as legislators they would have contended that it was in excess of legislative authority. A striking and almost paradoxical, but philosophically correct, illustration, which Prof. Thayer quotes from Judge Cooley, will best present this: That one who is a member of a legislature may vote against a measure as being in his judgment *unconstitutional;* and, being subsequently placed on the bench when this measure, having been passed by the legislature in spite of his opposition, comes before him judicially, may there find it his duty, *although he has in no degree changed his opinion*, to declare it *constitutional.*

Beyond this point, in his investigation, Prof. Thayer does not go. We hope that he will yet treat the subject negatively as well as positively—that he will analyze and bring before us the bad decisions as well as the good, the cases where political prejudice or the personal arrogance of small men on the bench, or the inevitable narrowness of a "little learning" in judicial places, has brought about decisions which are no better than tardy vetoes of legislative bills. But, so far in the discussion of the subject, the cases covered by the above rule are cases within one or the other of our dual systems of government—cases where a State statute conflicts with a State constitution and the question of constitutionality is adjudged by a State court; or cases where the statute is an act of Congress, and the tribunal is the Supreme Court of the United States. Will this easy-going rule do when State authority collides with the supreme law of the land, when the question before the court does not relate to mere individual suitors, when the powers of two governments must be delicately and accurately defined? Prof. Thayer treats this question too briefly; and there is another which he does not allude to—where an act of Congress trenches upon the constitutional rights of States.

As to the origin of the American doctrine, we are not now prepared to controvert the views of Prof. Thayer, and yet are not altogether willing to assent to them. The cases where colonial

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statutes were held to be in excess of colonial authority or in violation of restrictions in a charter, are few and far between. They seem to have made, so far as we now recollect, no appreciable lodgment in the public mind of that day. Moreover, if they had been frequent, they would have operated unfavorably; for when a colonial statute was declared a nullity, was it not a decision by a crown court against the right of the colonies to make their own laws? The public sentiment of the time was jealous of everything that savored of irreversible official power, afraid of monarchy and titles of nobility; and would not the public inclination have been to keep power in the hands of the people and to deny to the judiciary, or to any body of men, the right to annul that which the people, through their representatives, desired to attain by means of legislative enactments? Certain it is that, sooner or later, the doctrine would have come though there had never been a colonial charter in America. Written constitutions were inevitable when it was determined that there should be limitations set upon the powers of government. In what other way could the limitations be declared? And when constitutions were made the supreme law, it was equally inevitable that sooner or later they must be brought to the only tribunals whose office it was to interpret and authoritatively declare the meaning of the law. But it is not unlikely that the forthcoming work of the late Brinton Coxe will throw new light upon the subject and modify present conclusions.

That the American doctrine of which Americans at this day are justly proud has its disadvantages, and that it is to be kept rigorously within judicial limits, Prof. Thayer shows in a few brief but forcible paragraphs. The growing incapacity of our legislative systems to confront the increasing needs of modern civilization, the settled distrust in the public mind of the integrity and wisdom and common sense of all legislative bodies, State and national, inclines the public to lean more and more upon the judiciary, beseeching them, as it were, for the annulment of laws which should never have been made. Conversely, our professional legislators, as they may be termed, are growing rapidly in the faith that nothing is iniquitous which is constitutional. Bryce was struck with the "singular result" in America that our legislatures are "very largely occupied in purely legal discussions." "Legal issues," he says, "are apt to dwarf and obscure the more substantially important issues of principle and policy." To many good citizens the views of Prof. Thayer upon this point will be unpalatable food for thought, but that they should be thought over no one can doubt.

RECENT CONSTITUTION-MAKING IN SWITZERLAND.

PARIS, November 9, 1893.

ON the 13th of last October the Federal Council, the executive power of the Swiss Confederation, sent a message to the Federal Assembly announcing the official count of the vote of August 20 on the following amendment to the Swiss Constitution, which now becomes Article 25 *bis:* "Il est expressément interdit de saigner les animaux de boucherie sans les avoir étourdis préalablement; cette disposition s'applique à tout mode d'abatage et à toute espèce de bétail." This message of the Federal Council did more than officially declare the amendment accepted by a majority of the votes cast and by a majority of the cantons—the two conditions necessary to amend the Swiss Constitution: it declared the vote of eleven and a half cantons in the affirmative as against ten and a half cantons in the negative to be a majority in the Constitutional acceptation of the term, and thus destroyed the last hope of the French-speaking cantons, which were unanimously opposed to the amendment from the beginning.

If, in the generally accepted sense of the word, a constitution be regarded as a fundamental statute determining the seat of sovereignty among a people, and prescribing rules and maxims for the exercise of sovereign powers, the spirit of such an instrument has certainly been violated by the introduction of a clause prescribing the manner of slaughtering animals. However laudable such a provision may be as a police regulation, certainly the makers of any of our great written constitutions would have regarded a proposition to incorporate such a clause into the law of laws as little less than sacrilege. The iconoclastic spirit recently manifested by our Swiss contemporaries is nevertheless only part and parcel of a movement or tendency that has made itself felt also in America in dealing with our State constitutions. It is, further, a good barometric indication of corrupt politics, and of that distrust with which free peoples are now everywhere viewing their legislative bodies.

The Swiss Constitution is modelled on those of the cantons, and, like the latter, has always been capable of comparatively easy amendment, made more easy by an amendment passed in 1891, giving the initiative right to propose amendments to 50,000 voters; the "beef slaughtering" amendment of 1893 is the first exercise of this power. The right of initiative thus given is more than any mere right of petition, because it requires the properly constituted authority to act on the matter presented. It is also necessary to distinguish between the initiative in this case as applied to the total revision of the Constitution and as applied to a simple amendment or revision in part. The present Constitution of Switzerland was adopted in 1874, but the provision for amendment remained the same as in the Constitution of 1848, with the addition of the statement that the vote of a half-canton is counted as half a vote in making up the majority of the States, and the result of the popular vote in each canton is considered to be the vote of the State. Both of these constitutions charged the Federal Assembly with the duty of proposing amendments, but provided that whenever one house passed a resolution for amendment to which the other house did not agree, or when fifty thousand Swiss voters demanded amendment, the question whether the Federal Constitution ought to be amended should, in either case, be submitted to a vote of the Swiss people, voting yes or no; and in case of an affirmative majority, a new election of both houses should take place for the purpose of preparing amendments. This practically applied only to total revision, and although 50,000 voters could compel total revision provided they received a majority at the polls, yet their wish had to be put into shape through the indirect medium of a legislature. No provision was made for definite partial revision, which always partakes more of the nature of lawmaking.

It is true that the report accompanying the Constitution of 1848 said that partial revision might be undertaken in the same way as total revision, but neither this Constitution nor its successor in 1874 gave the matter of partial revision any further notice, and no test case came up until many years later. In the year 1879 a widespread movement in favor of making the issue of bank-notes a monopoly of the Confederation not meeting with favor at the hands of the National Assembly, a petition was presented to the Federal Council, signed by more than fifty thousand voters, asking to have the Constitution amended to this effect, and accompanied by the text of an amendment such as was desired. The Federal Council laid the matter before the Assembly, and evidently desired to have the question whether or no the Constitution should be revised on this particular point put directly to popular vote. The Assembly, however, decided that only the question of the total revision of the Constitution could thus be provoked by the people and presented to them at the polls, and consequently ordered a vote to be taken upon the general question, Shall the Constitution be revised? The people at the polls returned a majority in the negative, fearing a reopening of the disputed questions settled in 1874, though it is probable that a majority was actually in favor of the bank-note amendment, which was put into the Constitution by regular process eleven years later, in 1891. The question of partial revision thus raised in 1880 did not lie dormant; it was brought up in 1884 in the National Council, or lower house of the Assembly, in the form of a demand, on democratic grounds, for the sanction of the popular initiative in cases of partial revision, in order logically to complete the sense of the Constitution.

For four years more the proposition rested in the committee stage, having been sent to the Federal Council for report, when the matter was taken up by the Grütliverein, a powerful workingmen's organization. This Verein presented various petitions to the Federal Council and kept the matter before the public, advancing, however, no other arguments than that it was an evident defect in the Constitution to deny to the people the lesser power of demanding the revision of a single article, while granting them the greater power of demanding the revision of the whole; and, further, that this was one of the people's rights that must be claimed in the interest of pure democracy. The Federal Council then presented to the Federal Assembly a proposition which, if it had been accepted, would have submitted to vote a new amendment providing for a simple extension to cases of partial revision of the power already granted in cases of total revision. A demand made by 50,000 Swiss voters for the amendment of the Constitution on a single point would then have caused either the acceptance of the desired amendment at the hands of the Assembly and its presentation to the plébiscites, or, if the Assembly disagreed with it, the presentation of the question, Shall the Constitution be revised in this particular? which being answered in the af-

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firmative, the election of a new Assembly to draft the new amendment and submit it afresh to the people would have followed. Thus there would have been still considerable restraint imposed; the amendments would have been framed by competent persons, and practically submitted twice to popular vote. The National Council accepted the proposition thus made by the Federal Council, but, curiously enough, the Council of States, or upper house of the Assembly, amended it in such a way as completely to change its significance. In the form in which it finally passed the Council of States and was agreed to by the National Council, it gave to 50,000 petitioning voters the right to present a definite amendment which must be submitted directly to popular vote, the Assembly having the right to offer a counter proposition, whereupon the amendment receiving a majority of the votes cast and the vote of a majority of States would become part of the Constitution. In the form of an amendment to the Constitution this proposition was then submitted to the plébiscites on July 5, 1891, and accepted by a vote of 183,029 to 120,599, eighteen cantons voting in the affirmative,

To explain why the National Council made so radical a change in the original form of this proposition, and thus took away all the safeguards to the grant of a doubtful power, would require more space than we can give it here, though it may be remarked that the members of the Council of States representing the cantons were doubtless largely influenced by the methods in vogue for revising the cantonal constitutions, which are in most cases very loose, and in some cases give a small number of citizens the right to propose amendments to be voted on at an annual public gathering with little ceremony. At the hands of these representatives the proposition for revising the Constitution of the Confederation did not assume the importance it did to those better trained in more healthy theories of constitutional law. The Swiss people, however, were amply warned before election day of the probable consequences of their action by eminent constitutional authorities and their leading journals. Little interest was taken in what seemed to be a mere theoretical controversy, and less in the fears and warnings of academical theorists. A few speeches embellished with democratic platitudes served to bring out the rank and file of voters of the less intelligent class in favor of the amendment, and the total vote was light, owing to general indifference. The majority, nevertheless, was sufficiently pronounced, the amendment adopted, and the Swiss Constitution dethroned from the rank of a fundamental law. Henceforth all that malcontents and faddists had to do to further their pet theories on any minute detail of government, in case they were refused satisfaction at the hands of the lawmaking powers, was to put their ideas in the form of an amendment to the Constitution. With an association, or even a newspaper, at the head of almost any movement, it is not difficult to get fifty thousand signers for a petition even in little Switzerland.

In reading over the amendment accepted last August, prohibiting any animal to be slaughtered without being stunned by a sharp blow to deprive it of consciousness, probably only those well versed in the undercurrents of European politics of the hour will suspect the true nature of the movement that led up to its proposal and acceptance. Anti-Semitism is every day taking on new forms, but nowhere has it found a neater chance to give vent to its absurd fanaticism than here. The movement originated in the cantons of Bern and Aargau, where Jewish colonies formerly were permitted to slaughter animals according to the mode prescribed by their religion, by cutting the arteries at the throat and bleeding the animal to death. It seems that this mode of slaughter attracted the attention of the Society for the Protection of Animals—a rather powerful organization throughout Switzerland—which proclaimed it more cruel than methods in vogue among the Christians. The anti-Jewish feeling, already strong, was not slow to accept this idea, and sufficient pressure was brought to bear upon the cantonal governments of Bern and Aargau to secure the prohibition of the Jewish practice. The Society for the Protection of Animals then endeavored to have similar laws passed in other cantons. The Jews organized themselves and petitioned the Federal Council, claiming that such legislation was unconstitutional, since their mode of slaughter was part of their religious belief, and Art. 50 of the Constitution guaranteed all persons religious liberty. The Federal Council thereupon undertook the examination of the two fundamental questions at issue: (1) Is the Jewish mode of slaughter an integral part of their religion? and (2) if so, does it harmonize with the general standard of public good and morals under which the guarantee of religious liberty must be construed? Ample testimony was taken on both points from the ablest specialists. The first point was decided in the affirmative, and the second, which covered the question of cruelty, was likewise decided in favor of the Jews, with an almost unanimous recommendation for the adoption of the Jewish mode on grounds of public health and expediency. Such authorities as Profs. Virchow of Berlin, Herzen, Vogt, Guillebeau, and Hess of Bern, the Director of the Veterinary Institute of Leipzig, the Secretary of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and the majority of a Russian commission of seven specialists, all testified that the Jewish mode was less objectionable than any of the others, though the reflex movements of the muscles, after consciousness has left the animal, are painful to witness, and have thus given rise to the belief that this method is cruel. The Federal Council was, therefore, compelled to report the Jewish petition favorably to the Assembly, and that body sustained it in both houses by a law declaring the cantonal restrictions and prohibitions to be null and void.

The next step for the Anti-Semites was an easy one, viz., to amend the Constitution. They aroused the anti-Jewish feeling, and circulated a petition for a constitutional amendment, which soon received 83,000 signatures, of which number the three German cantons, Zurich, Bern, and Aargau, furnished over 64,000 and the French-speaking cantons only 2,500. A strong agitation pro and con ensued. In the affirmative were arrayed the anti-Semitic organizations and the friends of the Society for the Protection of Animals; in the negative the leading journals and the most enlightened public sentiment in all those cantons where Jewish colonies were not yet influential enough to arouse jealousy and hatred. Except in these latter cantons, the vote polled on election day was light. As now officially announced, it stands 191,527 for the amendment and 127,101 against. Less than half of the voting strength was brought out, yet not one French-speaking canton voted in the affirmative. In view of the fact that the vote of the States or cantons gave only one majority, we may say that the vote in the smallest of the cantons, Zug, which cast only 1,300 votes and gave an affirmative majority of less than 400 votes, decided this important change in the Swiss Constitution. The whole question, however, has not sufficiently touched the pockets of the people to arouse much indignation at this the first use to be made of the "people's initiative." The time will doubtless come when a sufficiently flagrant abuse of this power will arouse the Swiss nation to a consciousness of its mistake, and lead to a reconstruction period in its constitutional history. SAMUEL M. LINDSAY.

THE FRENCH ARTISTIC INVASION OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 20, 1893.

THERE was promise in the announcement that an exhibition of French decorative art was to be held in London. The term is confusing, since all art is decorative, else it is not art. But the Arts and Crafts' show being still open to prove that, according to this Society's definition, decorative art in England begins and ends with the work of its own members, the French collection, it was hoped, by explaining the French use of the term, would offer a fine opportunity for comparative study. If it has turned out to be not at all what was expected, it is a hundred times more interesting than if it were; for the organizers of the exhibition have given the word decorative an interpretation liberal and sensible beyond the belief of the English Arts-and-Craftsmen. The arts which custom classes as decorative either are not represented at all, or else so vilely that it would have been better not to make the attempt. Household furniture, stained glass, wall-papers, pottery, china do but succeed in showing that French amateurs and manufacturers can, when they choose, be as inartistic and vulgar as anybody else. It is only Charpentier, with his exquisite metal-work—his little bas-reliefs for locks or panels, the tankards and candlesticks in which he charms by his accomplished use of the human figure introduced into ornament—only Charpentier, and Chéret with his vases, and Wiener with his book-bindings, who, by bringing to London their contributions from last spring's Champ-de-Mars Salon, have lent to this department distinction and elegance.

But then, on the other hand, arts not usually classified as decorative have been, not merely included in the collection, but represented most marvellously well and adequately. These are the arts of lithography, wood-engraving, and etching, and upon them the interest of the exhibition rests. Nothing could be more timely than their present appearance in London. In the first place, they give the lie direct to the theory of the Arts-and-Craftsmen that prints and drawings cannot be decorative if the draughtsman swerve a hair's breadth from certain arbitrary lines and combinations of lines, a certain affectation of primitiveness and indifference to natural beauty of form. In the French work, the artist has allowed himself the freedom of the painter, or, perhaps, borrowed motives—to be worked out in his own fashion—from the Oriental, or has boldly forsaken the beaten track for strange and original experiment. And he will be a blind man who will find truer feeling for ornament in the stilted mannerisms of Crane than in the free, unconstrained designs of Carrière—in the archaic wood-blocks after Burne-Jones than in the lovely color-prints of Lepère. Not an artist is there who does not work according to conventions, for art itself is in its very nature a convention. But this is no reason why each

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artist should not be at liberty to choose his own, instead of being bound by those of others, or by tradition. Just as a canvas filled with a landscape by Corot is as wholly decorated as a wall-space filled with geometrical figures, so the characteristic and personal lines of Lepère, or the well-composed portraits of Carrière, form as truly decorative a design as the cross between Botticelli and Burne-Jones — and mighty little of the former — which is the only convention accepted by the English would-be authorities.

More important still is the proof afforded by the collection of the reaction against the excesses of "process." For, flat contradiction as at first it may sound, to process we really owe the present new Renaissance in the arts of lithography and wood-engraving, and, in a lesser degree, etching. I do not wish to be misunderstood. For the reproduction of line drawings process is not easily to be outdone; for the rendering of wash drawings, ninety-nine artists in a hundred will prefer it—and prefer it with emphasis—to wood-engraving; and, the chances are, it will be carried to greater perfection in the future. But the very excellence of these mechanical facsimiles has directed the energies of the wood-engraver and lithographer into new channels. Professional pessimists there be who declare that these arts are doomed to utter extinction; that henceforth the intelligence of engraver or lithographer will be superseded wholly by the unintelligent action of chemicals. And, indeed, in England there is danger of this prophecy being fulfilled. Here, process has been sadly abused, since its cheapness, and not its excellence, has to most editors and publishers been its recommendation; and, where cheapness is sought, original wood-engravers and lithographers can have small chance. But in France, and to a lesser extent in the United States, such among them as are artists, their services being no longer monopolized in the facsimile reproduction of other men's designs, have been able to give their individuality full play, to make experiment after experiment, to use the stone or the wood for the recording of their own impressions. The result is the possibility of so fine and striking and suggestive a series of prints as that now hanging on the walls of the Grafton Galleries—a series which could not well have been brought together some ten or twelve years ago, before the popularizing of process.

This activity is most marked in the revival of lithography. The stone has attracted painters like Besnard and Carrière and Puvis de Chavannes, who are represented in the present collection, as some years ago it appealed to Whistler, who may be said to have inaugurated the movement. But even more notable are the many new departures that have been made in the art, the wonderful manner in which the resources of the stone have been tested. Of the technical methods employed I say nothing, since just now I am concerned with results. Judging from these, it seems as if there were nothing the original lithographer cannot do. He can give not merely line, as in a pencil drawing on the stone by Willette, but tone no less well, as in the rich, brilliant studies of light and shade by Dillon and Lunois, two masters of the art. His very brushmarks can be rendered, or so subtle a quality as the mist that hangs over a portrait by Carrière. And next to an example of this kind you will come at once upon a strong design in thick, straightforward black lines and bold blots by Anquetin of the *Courrier Français*. The prints in color are no less interesting. Unfortunately there are few of the posters that give gayety and life to French streets—only about half-a-dozen by Grasset have been sent, among them the familiar, angular, delightful arrangement of Sarah Bernhardt as *Jeanne d'Arc*. But there are curious impressions of vivid color by Lunois, delicate suggestions by Lepère, Japanese-like, fantastic use of figures by Dennis. And in none are we dependent upon another man's interpretation; we have in each the work of the artist himself. There could be no question of process competing with lithographs like this.

In America, Cole's engravings after the old masters, and Kruell's portraits, certainly have qualities which process or photography, in the eyes of an intelligent critic or even educated observer, could never rival. In France, Florian has experimented in this same field with still greater originality and more varied effects. His use of the graver is freer; he sketches at times on the block, giving in beautiful lines his impressions of pictures or those parts of a picture which have charmed him. Wood-engraving will not soon surpass the loveliness of his blocks after Botticelli, especially one, showing a single figure from the "Birth of Venus," the flower-sprigged gown, the swirl of the draperies, the little landscape beyond, all expressed with incomparable refinement and delicacy, while the silvery quality given to the print is in admirable harmony with the subject. So long as there are such masters as Florian, Cole, and Kruell, what nonsense it is to lament the decline of wood-engraving. Others, Lepère, for instance, like Mr. Elbridge Kingsley, engrave directly from nature on the block, and, Lepère being an artist of distinction, the results with him are always interesting, sometimes of supreme value. His most noteworthy achievement is in the blocks printed in color. These have less in common with the ordinary color work of the Western engraver—like those now exhibited by Pissarro, for example—than with the work of the Japanese. He has not thought it necessary to overload his print with color, even though he may use the same number of blocks as Pissarro; rather he has suggested tints the beauty of which would be sacrificed by elaboration or attempt at too close realizing, and by his suggestion he has obtained an effect of distant landscape, of flowing water, or even of the modelling of the sky, much as the Japanese artist succeeds in producing very similar effects in his print. What has already been accomplished by the modern original wood-engraver is of importance, not solely in itself, but in the still wider scope and greater freedom it bids fair to give to the art in the future.

The experiments in etching are as amusing, but hardly as promising. The printing of plates in color, as practised by Delatre, is ingenious, but his success is scarce sufficient to induce many etchers to neglect the old black and brown and gray inks. More to the purpose are the effective combinations of line and aquatint, or some method of preparing the plate known only to the etcher himself, to render any and every effect. The three Pissarros have made wonderful prints in this way. And there is a small portrait of Lautrec by Maurin which commands the respect of the artist, while it stimulates the layman's curiosity, so impossible is it to understand how the beautiful rich surface and the fine tones have been obtained.

In London the influence of the exhibition should be for good. It is refreshing in its frank, unaffected contrast to the fads of the English draughtsmen of the primitive school, who call themselves decorators in contradistinction to all other illustrators and engravers. It should prove of incalculable use to the English student, who, for the first time, has the chance to learn something of the possibilities of wood-engraving and lithography which he has hitherto known by their limitations. To every one it is delightful as a reminder of the present vitality of arts whose very existence is supposed to be imperilled by the invention of process. N. N.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—V.

PARIS, November 11, 1893.

TALLEYRAND understood well the need of striking while the iron is hot, and lost no time as soon as he had the Emperor Alexander with him. He had declared himself for the Bourbons, and when Alexander asked him how he would accomplish the revolution, he did not hesitate to say that he would accomplish it with the help of the Senate. Pasquier too knew how to take a prompt resolution. "I had," he says, "reflected on the grave situation in which I was to be placed. I did not conceal from myself the dangers or the sadness of an irrevocable resolution. From that moment [his first interview with Nesselrode] I resolved to employ all the means in my power to procure the triumph of the House of Bourbon." The Senate behaved as Talleyrand had promised that it should behave: if it had not done so, "our situation," says Pasquier, "would have become critical. . . . This occasion was, in all Talleyrand's life, the one when he best manœuvred, for it is past comprehension how, and how rapidly, he obtained all that was necessary, how everything was fixed and executed." The Senate met, named a provisional government, and promulgated a series of articles which were the foundation of the *Charte*, all in one day, under the presidency of Talleyrand. The next day it pronounced the deposition of Napoleon. The decree of deposition was brought to Alexander, who, in order to show that he wished to become an ally of France, ordered that all the French prisoners held in Russia should be set free. Pasquier had kept his office of prefect of police, and had to answer for the safety of Alexander, who liked to go through Paris on horseback and to visit all its public establishments. "Honored," said the prefect, in a circular to all his agents, "with the confidence of the provisional government, which has maintained me in my functions, I have accepted this mode of serving my country."

Meanwhile, Napoleon was still at Fontainebleau, ready to take the offensive. He had called near him the two corps of Marshals Marmont and Mortier, and was expecting troops from Champagne. He was desirous to fight a battle before Paris and to rouse the workingmen of the capital. "The idea of a battle fought under the walls of Paris threw the firmest into consternation, for, if it was lost by the Allies, the consequences were incalculable. Who could know what might happen in a precipitate retreat! . . . As for the men who had dared to come out against Napoleon as we had just done, it is easy to perceive what would have been their fate. Flight would have been their only resource." So great was the fear that some people already thought of trying to assassinate Bonaparte. Pasquier heard of these projects, and, having received a letter from the Duc de Bassano, brought to him by a peasant, he took the opportunity to send back word, first, advising the Emperor to have his person well guarded, and, secondly, urging him not to apply to him any more for anything concerning his service.

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The Duc de Bassano had asked him, on behalf of the Emperor, in his letter to give him details of the state of Paris. Pasquier gives the full text of the dry note which he sent to the Duc de Bassano; it ends thus: "No need to ask me any more for anything. You must know the side I have taken."

Alexander was much concerned about the sentiments of the army, as if in 1814 he foresaw the return from Elba in 1815. He said in his little circle: "The army is always the army: as long as you have it not with you, gentlemen, you have nothing. It represents the French nation, and if you do not gain it over, you can do nothing solid. It will always in the end upset what has been established without its consent and against its sentiment." The answer to these fears was given by Marshal Marmont; his defection was the deathblow to Napoleon. Pasquier relates in great detail the story of Talleyrand and Nesselrode's negotiations with Marmont.

"I know all that has been said," writes Pasquier, "all that one has a right to think about Marshal Marmont; alas! it is certain that I would not have the act with which he is reproached weighing on my memory. Still, he rendered a great service, and he rendered it unconditionally. Whatever may have been his secret thoughts, he asked nothing, he stipulated nothing for himself. We shall soon see his example followed by his most renowned rivals and equals. All, in the course of three weeks, yielded to the new order of things, to the House of Bourbon."

The abdication of Napoleon, which was forced on him by his own marshals, was signed on the 4th of April, 1814, at Fontainebleau. Pasquier was present when the plenipotentiaries of the French Emperor were received by Alexander. A conference took place, in which the fate of Napoleon was decided; it lasted till two o'clock in the morning. "We had witnessed one of the most extraordinary scenes of which history has preserved the memory. A sovereign, arriving from the confines of Asia, had coolly allowed to be discussed the existence of a dynasty founded by the greatest man of modern times, and the return of the most ancient European dynasty, torn from the throne twenty-two years before by the most terrible revolution. He ended the discussion by saying: 'I will come to a decision to-morrow before nine o'clock.'" And so he did. Alexander was convinced that the abdication would be an illusion if Napoleon was recognized; the King of Rome was sacrificed, and Austria did not appear to care for his interests.

The island of Elba was chosen for Napoleon's prison. Is it true that, on hearing his fate, Napoleon tried to poison himself? Pasquier admits it. "During the night of the 12th and 13th of April, he tried to destroy himself. The poison which he used, shut up in his *nécessaire* since the Russian campaign, was probably too old; it had no effect except to cause very intense pain. The Servian surgeon who was with him lost his head, went down into the court of the Cheval Blanc, and, finding a horse saddled, jumped on it and went off on a gallop. He did not reappear at Fontainebleau." Napoleon was a fatalist; he accepted his fate, ratified the arrangements made for him, and rather encouraged than discouraged all the adhesions to the new government which poured in from all sides in a few days. Monsieur, Comte d'Artois, made his entrance into Paris on horseback, in the uniform of the national guard. The King was detained some time longer in England by a fit of the gout. Napoleon was still at Fontainebleau.

"It cannot be disputed that, having once made up his mind to abdicate, his attitude was noble and resigned. He even spoke with indulgence of Talleyrand. 'After all,' he said, 'he served me well while he did serve me; I quarrelled with him perhaps with a little levity. I then ill-treated him. He must have been tempted to avenge himself. So fine a mind as his must have understood that the Bourbons were approaching, that they alone could assure his vengeance. He took the first steps towards them. It was very simple. I committed a great blunder. I had brought him to such a pitch of discontent that I ought to have shut him up or have kept him always at my side.'"

Napoleon left for the island of Elba; the next day the Duc de Berry arrived from Normandy. "I was beside him," says Pasquier, "when he gave his first audience. All the generals then in Paris came to be presented to him. He knew none of them; all were obliged to give their names to an aide-de-camp placed near him. I was obliged to help in this delicate duty." This incident shows how utterly ignorant the Bourbons were of the society which was to become theirs. The Comte d'Artois, who had assumed the functions of government before the arrival of the King, asked Pasquier how the King could recompense the services which he had rendered. Pasquier said that he was tired of his place, and wished to leave it. The Comte d'Artois insisted on his remaining in it one or two years more.

Louis XVIII. travelled slowly from England and stopped at Compiègne.

"When the Emperor Alexander appeared at Compiègne, it was impossible for him not to perceive that he entered into an atmosphere very different from that in which he had hitherto lived. He was no longer the indispensable, unique man, upon whom everything depended; a new influence balanced his, and it was the most disagreeable of all to him, as it came from the quarter which revealed the only rivalry he had to fear. [The King had found an asylum in England when he was excluded from every country in Europe, even Russia.] Alexander had come with an idea which he had cherished for some little time with complacency—the idea of an intimate union between Russia and France, a union which would be cemented by the marriage of the Duc de Berry with one of his sisters. . . . He found neither in the King nor in his family the abandon, the cordiality which might have made an overture simple and easy. He returned from Compiègne to Paris in a very different state of mind from that in which he had come."

The consequences of this coldness were grave, for, as Pasquier remarks, the conflict between the English influence and the Russian influence was soon felt in the political parties of France.

"On the side of England were the Court and the whole of the party of the *émigrés;* on the side of Russia were all the men who had played an active and important part in recent events, all those whose patriotism had, during the wars of the Empire, revolted against England. A deep hatred of England had become a national sentiment; all the military men were imbued with it, the inhabitants of the coast had drunk it in with their mothers' milk."

Talleyrand's astonishment at Compiègne was as great as Alexander's surprise; he saw himself relegated to the crowd of courtiers; he had to wait two or three hours before being introduced by M. de Blacas. The King said to Talleyrand when he saw him: "Well, M. de Talleyrand, so I am right in the end? If you had had the advantage, you would have said to me, 'Sit down, and let us have a talk'; it is for me to pay you this compliment and to say, 'Sit down and let us talk together.'" There was much irony and some impertinence in this apparently friendly familiarity. The King still saw the Bishop of Autun in M. de Talleyrand; he had forgotten nothing. Louis XVIII. received at Saint-Ouen the Senate, the marshals of France, all the high dignitaries of the State; he made the declaration which bears the name of Declaration of Saint-Ouen, in which he accepted the principle of a Constitution, and confirmed the principal articles which had been prepared by the Senate. Among the framers of the Constitution was M. Beugnot. It was agreed between the King and his brother that Beugnot should become director-general of the police in place of Pasquier. M. de Blacas, in the name of the King, informed Pasquier of this change, and asked him what compensation he would prefer. The place of director-general of the Ponts-et-Chaussées was vacant, and was not a political post. Pasquier, in this new office, became a witness and ceased to be an actor.

There was no intimacy between the King and his family and the allied sovereigns; Louis XVIII. was anxious only to see them depart. In the meantime, Alexander often called at Malmaison on the Empress Josephine and on her daughter, Queen Hortense. He spent with them the greater part of his evenings. In the small circle of Josephine, he spoke rather too freely of the Bourbons. "*Ces gens-là*," said he in a moment of spleen, "*ne se soutiendront jamais.*" Louis XVIII. could not view with much pleasure these visits to Malmaison; on his part he always let Alexander see that he was the King of France *par la grâce de Dieu:* he walked before him in going through a door; he kept up all the forms of the ancient etiquette of sovereigns. Josephine fell ill during Alexander's sojourn in Paris, and expired after three days' illness. The Emperor of Russia was very attentive to her, and spent the night of her death at Malmaison. The Russian Imperial Guard attended her funeral at Rueil, and rendered her the honors which in other times would have been rendered by Napoleon's imperial guard.

At last, the treaty of peace was signed and ratified:

"I shall never forget," says Pasquier, "the impression I received on the morning of the 3d of June, when I crossed the Place Louis XV. to go to my house. I found the square and the adjacent quays covered with Russian and Prussian troops marching away with their knapsacks on their backs. The morning was misty, and whether on account of the weather or of the fatigue of having seen so many things, the great event of the evacuation was accomplished without noise, without spectators. Nobody, or almost nobody, had taken the trouble to turn out. . . . I remained half an hour on the bridge, motionless, looking on the flow of these soldiers, of this mass of arms, of guns, of horses. . . . How far from my thought was the possibility of seeing again and in a very short interval of time these terrible phalanxes which had weighed so heavily on us!"

Correspondence.

AN INDEX GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a small Southern college, which has a meagre library and very limited funds for adding to it, there is a certain professor of Greek whose none-too-aldermanic salary barely enables him to support his family, and to buy from year to year a few new books that he deems necessary aids to his work if he is to do his duty by his classes. This teacher, who has from twelve to fifteen hours per week of class-work, has a certain feeling (which creeps into his mind timidly enough in the presence of tomes of German learning), that a book of re-

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ference should be a book of ready reference. He thinks that an index adds something to a good many books, and he has tried in a feeble way to use his Schmidt's 'Kunstformen der Griechischen Poesie' and Rossbach and Westphal's 'Musische Künste der Hellenen' without one.

But the *Nation* has preached and preached upon this text, and he hopes will continue to preach. He begs to sing a different tale of woe. He has found Lipsius's edition of Meier and Schoemann's 'Der Attische Process' useful in his reading of Lysias and other Attic orators. The book has an index (though no index of passages cited), but what is he to do with the 123 "Berichtigungen und Nachträge"? He must either look in two places on every consultation, or incorporate all the corrections in the body of the book, by symbol or in full. The first is inconvenient, the second takes time ill to be spared. He gets interested in the etymology of some word and consults his Brugmann's 'Grundriss der Vergleichenden Grammatik.' He happens to have met Prof. Brugmann, and found him a courteous gentleman, full of the milk of human kindness. Yet his 'Grundriss' contains, in the first volume, 46 "Nachträge und Berichtigungen"; in the second, 141 solidly printed "Berichtigungen und Nachträge" to the first volume, 152 to the second volume, followed by 55 "Verbesserungen und Nachträge"! And then, to cap the climax, he finds that after the index come 45 more "Nachträge und Berichtigungen zu Band II." And so on and on through a long list of books that the Fatherland sends us. One becomes profoundly thankful that the 131 "Berichtigungen und Nachträge" in the first volume of Kühner-Blass, and the 153 in the second volume to the first, and the 75 to the second, are included in the purview of the index, though of course one cannot trust the body of the book without reference to the index.

Is it always the notoriously bad German eyesight that is responsible for the often execrable proof-reading, or is it sometimes simply haste? It is true that these multitudinous corrections come in part from a desire to refer the reader to the latest word on every question. But it often seems as if more deliberation would have increased the elements of dignity and finality. And surely, when an important correction has been made, the index should show it.

W. H. B.

DILÎP SINH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It occurs to me that a few words supplementary to "F. H.'s" communication respecting the late Dhuleep Singh in your paper of last week might be welcome to some readers. Having had some direct or personal knowledge of an important incident in the Maharajah's life to which "F. H." refers, I am able to mention some circumstances or considerations which deepen the curiosity (queerness?) of the affair, and which, though probably well known to "F. H.," he does not explicitly denote or indicate.

Dhuleep Singh was not, as some Americans have supposed, merely the heir apparent, but the actual Maharajah or great king of the dominions of Runjeet Singh, having been placed upon the throne of Lahore by the British in 1846; and in his character of great king it was he who, after the crushing defeat of the Sikhs in 1849, tendered to the Governor-General, at the gates of Lahore, the submission of himself and his chiefs. And when, in 1849, Lord Dalhousie annexed the Punjab to the British territories, it was as the deposed Maharajah that he was thought worthy of the liberal pension of £40,000 a year. It was also upon his title, as having been their actual or *de facto* king, that the Sikhs relied in their hope of his future restoration to the throne from which he had been deposed.

Whatever knowledge some of the Sikhs possessed respecting the baseness of his birth, and whatever suspicions were entertained by others of them, Dhuleep Singh was undoubtedly a centre or nucleus around which the Sikhs might some day rally. Though still a boy in his early teens, and not a boy who gave promise of great future ability, he was already a source of troublous thoughts and of brooding intrigue among the Sirdars and other chiefs in the Punjab. And though no movement against the recently imposed rule of the "white foreigners" might take place, or even threaten to take place, at an early day, it was clear enough that the state of unrest would probably grow worse as the captive Maharajah advanced in years and stature.

Now, most readers very likely know that the Sikhs of the Punjab were by far the most formidable antagonists, of Indian origin, the British have ever encountered in maintaining their dominion in the East. In the war with the Sikhs there was a day on which, during many hours, English rule in India seemed to have reached its end or to hang by a hair. Indeed, even another battle with the Sikhs, though the English were known beforehand as predestined victors, seemed of all calamities the most to be avoided, if possible; and happily there was one way in which whatever dangers might inhere in the person of the little "Great Rajah" might be easily eliminated or neutralized. Purposely or consciously to injure, and thus, in any manner or degree, to disqualify the Prince was out of the question and not to be thought of; a remedy forbidden with equal emphasis by British magnanimity and by British humanity. No, certainly such a thought, I am sure, never entered the mind of one of the English gentlemen upon whom the high responsibilities of British administration in India then rested. Instead of injuring the boy in any way, they determined to confer upon him the greatest of all benefits by making, or rather by causing him to be made, a Christian in the mode and after the pattern prescribed by the Church of England. Accordingly, at the request of the Prince's English guardian, Sir John Logan, an American missionary at Farrakhabad, the Rev. Mr. Seeley, undertook his preliminary instruction in the elements of Christian doctrine; and when this course of teaching had continued a few months or weeks, the Maharajah, then in his fifteenth year, was baptized by an East India Company's chaplain, the Rev. Mr. Jay, and was thus made a Christian. Naturally, the report of this transformation was rapidly spread abroad over the northwest provinces and from there over the Punjab, with results easily foreseen. The bibliolaters who worship the Granth and hate the Moslems; the Moslems who love the Koran and hate all idolaters; and the orthodox Hindus who regard neither the Granth nor the Koran—in a word, all the peoples of the Punjab—forthwith found themselves in a state of happy unity of sentiment respecting the very objectionable metamorphosis of their late Maharajah; while the rebellious Sirdars at once perceived that he had ceased to be available for their purposes.

R. E. W.

176 Federal Street, Allegheny, Pa.,
November 25, 1893.

Notes.

The "Heart of Oak Books," of English prose and poetry for young folks, already announced as in process of compilation by Prof. C. E. Norton and Miss Kate Stephens, are soon to be published in five volumes by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The procession of reprints recommences with (let us say at random) the 'Lorna Doone' in two volumes issued by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. We find this edition preferable to a much more ambitious one of recent date in respect both of typography and of handiness. The photogravure illustrations are numerous, and all but wholly views of the scene of this Devonshire story; the few figure compositions are weak and ineffective, but do not seriously mar the uniformly pleasing impression of the well-chosen transcripts from nature. The binding is in white and gold with an arabesque design. We like best the pretty page of print with its deep *unbroken* margin in the Harpers' edition of Charles Reade's 'Cloister and the Hearth,' in two volumes richly bound in buff and gold. Still, Mr. William Martin Johnson's drawings, which irregularly break in upon the margin, seldom lack a decorative quality and they show not a little versatility. The draughtsmanship of the figures is in general clever in an amateurish way. The shiny page must be set down to the account of "process." For every-day use one can but commend the simpler style in which A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have revived Elizabeth Spofford's 'Rumour,' again in two volumes, light to the hand and most tastefully bound in blue cloth, stamped in gold on the back and in white on the side. Mrs. Spofford's "introductory note" is a pretty full disquisition upon the author. The two frontispieces are of Beethoven and Louis Napoleon.

We recur once more to the parallel editions of Scott, the International (Estes & Lauriat) and the Dryburgh (Macmillan), which now respectively add 'The Abbot' in two volumes and 'The Fortunes of Nigel' in one—neither calling for any remark by way of distinction from their predecessors. We may say the same of Fielding's 'Jonathan Wild' in the Dent-Macmillan issue; of 'In Far Lochaber,' in Harper's uniform edition of William Black; and of Ruskin's 'Elements of Drawing' in the Brantwood edition supervised by Prof. Norton (Maynard, Merrill & Co.). McClurg's "Laurel-Crowned" series is well known as a standard of good inexpensive bookmaking, and we need therefore only refer to it as the model after which the same firm have fashioned Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus' and Thackeray's 'English Humorists,' the shorter work having a more open appearance.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, celebrate the fortieth anniversary of 'The Adventures of Mr. Verdant Green, an Oxford Freshman,' by bringing this classic out anew in very handsome style, within and without, while coupling with it for the first time a uniform (third) volume embracing the same author's 'Little Mr. Bouncer and His Friend Verdant Green' and 'Tales of College Life.' Mr. Cuthbert Bede's own Thackerayesque illustrations have been reproduced in this set, which has an historic as well as an imaginative value. The covers are in green, of course, richly and artistically stamped, and the price for such good workmanship very moderate.

The Scribners have thought it well to make up a brochure, in large type, of the articles by

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artists on the World's Fair and its frequenters that have appeared in their *Magazine*—Mr. F. D. Millet on "The Decoration of the Exposition," Mr. J. A. Mitchell on "Types and People at the Fair," Mr. Will H. Low on "The Art of the White City," etc., etc. There is some overlapping in these categories, and some, but less, in the accompanying designs, from all which emerges a pretty souvenir called 'Some Artists at the Fair.'

We pause in this long list with 'A History of My Time,' an English version of the Memoirs of Chancellor Pasquier, of which the first volume, 1789–1810, is before us (Charles Scribner's Sons), while our Paris correspondent is commenting on the second in the original French. We shall say nothing as to contents, therefore. The 559 pages are compactly printed, without being trying to the eyes. An early and a later portrait of Pasquier are the sole illustrations. The translation, by Charles E. Roche, shows itself, on the least examination, to be literal to a degree that makes it more trustworthy than scholarly or idiomatic.

Some of the illustrated holiday books are not new, and some that are new are not good. Lee & Shepard revive J. Noel Paton's time-honored designs for Coleridge's 'Ancient Mariner' (for what, we wonder, do they claim copyright?), and the Appletons bring out illustrated editions of 'Picciola' and of Bryant's 'Poems of Nature,' of which it is difficult to say whether J. F. Gueldry's figures or Paul de Longpré's landscapes and flowers are the worse. In the absence of other tests, perhaps the cover of the second of the volumes may be considered to gain for it the palm of badness.

Good training and an adequate knowledge of the figure mark Mr. F. V. Du Mond's drawings for Mr. William Trumbull's not very inspiring poem, 'The Legend of the White Canoe' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), and Mr. Bernard Partridge, as is well known, sketches with a brisk and clever pen, even if not with quite the dainty elegance of fancy that should accompany Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Proverbs in Porcelain' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.). Mr. Dobson himself, it is fair to say, seems satisfied and pleased with Mr. Partridge's work, and if we feel that Abbey could have done it better, it is hard to say who else could.

The great album of 'The City of St. Louis and its Resources' (St. Louis: *Star-Sayings*) is an excellent specimen of a class of works familiar to the West. Its letterpress is exceptionally well written, and its numerous portraits of leading men in the various industries, trades, and professions afford material for an interesting study of American types. A few of these persons have a national reputation outside of trade circles, but in the main the biographical sketches deal with men of only local fame and importance, and their genealogical value is considerable. The typography and presswork are very creditable.

Readers of the *Bookman* must have been struck with a series of reminiscential papers running from its first number, of October, 1891, down to the present, and signed Φ. Mr. Francis Espinasse now fathers and collects them under the title, 'Literary Recollections and Sketches' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The Carlyles and their circle cut the largest figure in the volume. Mr. Espinasse is himself a Scotchman, notwithstanding his name, and, being one who neither grovels before Carlyle nor bellows at him, he contributes not a little to the better understanding of the Sage of Chelsea which has been reached since other hands than Mr. Froude's have been taking a turn at his portraiture.

A Life of Wagner, in about 15,000 words, by Edward Francis, has been added to Brentano's "Petite Library." It is prettily bound and small enough to be slipped into the vest pocket and read on a single trip on the elevated railway. It gives the principal facts of the composer's life in a sufficiently accurate manner (although we note a few small mistakes, especially on p. 98), and it contains at the end a useful list of Wagner's compositions, besides a full table of contents of his ten volumes of literary works.

Schopenhauer's principal work has been translated into English, but his 'Parerga' and other books still await a complete translation. That it will come in time is a matter of course. Schopenhauer is, as a French writer has said, not "a philosopher like others, but one who has seen the world." Pending the appearance of a complete translation, we must welcome the 'Essays of Schopenhauer,' by T. B. Saunders (A. L. Burt), a selection of the best chapters from the philosopher's various volumes. They are grouped by the translator under five heads—"The Wisdom of Life," "Counsels and Maxims," "Religion and Other Essays," "The Art of Literature," "Studies in Pessimism." The American edition is a cheaper reprint in one volume of the English edition in five small volumes, one of which is already in its third edition. To authors there is hardly anything in all literature more valuable and suggestive than the essays here reproduced "On Authorship," "On Style," "On Thinking for One's Self." In the translator's preface is pointed out, among other things, the affinity between Schopenhauer's pessimism and a fundamental tenet of Christian theology.

From the Scribners we have a new edition, abridged in one volume, of the Life of Jenny Lind by Holland and Rockstro. It is an interesting story in itself, and Jenny Lind was such a pure and lovable character that her career is one with which all young women interested in music and the stage should be familiar. In the chapter on Jenny Lind's method they will also find some useful practical hints.

E. Schuberth & Co. are the American agents for Donajowski's Miniature Scores of famous symphonies. They are the full orchestral scores, elegantly printed, in the convenient size of an ordinary book, and the price is extremely moderate.

After a long interval devoted to men of comparatively little importance, the series of "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Macmillan) again gives us a book dealing with a justly celebrated painter. Constant Troyon, if not an artist of the very first rank, yet holds a very high place in the second. Greater than Dupré and Diaz, if not so great as Millet, Corot, or Rousseau, he comes, with Daubigny, immediately after this trio, in the list of those who formed the splendid school of landscape and the open-air which is the glory of France, and which gives modern painting the right to be counted among the great developments of art in the world's history. If not very subtle or exquisite, his style is full, strong, and rich. His drawing of animal forms is not impeccable, but he got the essence of animal nature, and his beasts are much more living than those, for instance, of his cleverer pupil, Van Marcke. He had a strong sense of light and air, and great breadth and vigor of vision combined with a feeling for color, and his best work will always be admired and enjoyed. M. Hustin's account of his simple life is brief but adequate, and the lists of exhibitions and sales will prove valuable for reference. They are carried down to 1892. The illustrations are, as usual in this series, profuse, and some of them are much above the average of merit.

Max Simon's 'Swift: Étude Psychologique et Littéraire' (Paris: Baillière) is a contribution not so much to knowledge as to understanding. After a brief account of Swift's eccentricities, illustrated by the usual anecdotes, M. Simon analyzes the art of Swift as satirist and humorist, and his character as "le malade et l'homme." The temper of the author is perfect—catholic, humane, and sympathetic—and he knows his subject. The result is a charming essay, which can easily be read at a sitting, but which gives, we feel sure, a juster picture of the great dean than any that his biographers have succeeded in drawing. The criticism is clear-sighted and suggestive. Particularly noteworthy is the defence of the Yahoo episode in Gulliver—a defence which, whatever one may think of its validity, is not to be laughed or scolded out of court.

Hachette & Cie. have just published a new edition of M. Gustave Larroumet's 'Marivaux, sa vie et ses œuvres' which, in its original form of a thesis, formed a thick octavo volume. The book has been abridged, not rewritten, but the changes unquestionably make it more generally useful. M. Larroumet, in his original study of Marivaux as dramatist, novelist, moralist, and critic, had heaped up proof upon proof and quotation on quotation, giving extended analyses and summaries with the view, mainly, of replacing Marivaux in a higher position than he occupied at the time. He succeeded in doing so, and, in reissuing his admirable study of the eighteenth-century writer, he felt that much of this special pleading might now be safely and judiciously omitted. The book remains the best authority on Marivaux, from the critical point of view of the nineteenth century.

Mme. Hector Malot has written for "poets, lovers, and young people" a novel entitled 'Le Prince' (Paris: Flammarion), which is not immoral, it is true; which is intended to be a careful analytical study of two characters, husband and wife; which is undoubtedly meant to be fragrant with poesy and the charm of youth, and yet which is merely dull. The characters fail to interest, the dénouement is realistic in its way, but not very intelligible, and the style lacks vigor.

The "Chinese-Lantern Calendar," "A Calendar of Pets," with water-color designs by Maud Humphrey, "'The Playmates' Calendar," and "'Little Friends' Calendar," with like drawings by Elizabeth S. Tucker, come to us from Frederick A. Stokes Co. They share with the smaller 'All Around the Year' of Lee & Shepard the defect of subordinating the calendar proper to the decorations almost to the extent of illegibility.

Besides the section on drift deposits contributed by Prof. R. D. Salisbury to the annual report for 1892 of the State geologist of New Jersey—a valuable paper of general application, which we have already noticed—the report deals with Cretaceous and Tertiary formations, water-supply and water-power, artesian wells in the southern part of the State, and (with reference to the same region) the sea-dikes of the Netherlands and the reclamation of lowlands. A sample sheet of the colored map of surface geology in preparation by the Survey accompanies Mr. Wm. Bullock Clark's discussion of the clays, marls, and greensand of Monmouth and Middlesex counties in particular, from New Brunswick to Long Branch. Another map, of the entire State, illustrates the watersheds actually drawn upon for the supply of the northeastern cities, and also

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those available for such supply. Mr. C. C. Vermeule's discussion of this important topic fits in with Prof. Smock's reiteration of the urgent need of parks and reservations for the recreation of a territory whose urban population exceeds 800,000 souls and is increasing with ominous rapidity. The Massachusetts example of a Metropolitan Park Commission is held up for emulation. Clearly, no time should be lost in appealing for enlightened legislation on this subject.

One of the latest numbers of the *Forschungen zur Deutschen Landes- und Volkskunde* is a study of the Island of Rügen, on the Baltic coast of Prussia, by Prof. Rudolf Credner of Greifswald. The island has for a long time attracted attention from the peculiar dislocations of its cretaceous strata with their cover of glacial drift. Credner concludes, after a minute examination of the district, that the dislocations were produced after an early pleistocene glacial advance, which left a sheet of drift over a series of horizontal strata; and that a later glacial invasion had a moderate effect in subduing the constructional forms that it encountered. Credner regards his results as strongly confirmatory of the complexity of the glacial period, inasmuch as, between the deposition of the older and newer drifts, there was time enough for a considerable dislocation and denudation of the surface. These *Forschungen* have now reached seven volumes, of from five to seven numbers each; it is announced that new subscribers for the whole series may secure the first five volumes at half price. The editor is Prof. Kirchhoff of Halle; the publisher, Engelhorn of Stuttgart.

A timely paper is M. Henri Duveyrier's account of a journey from Telemsan to Melilla, in the *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie. On account of the disturbed condition of the country at the time, 1886, he was obliged to travel in the suite of the Shereef of Wazan, disguised as his physician. His route through Morocco followed so closely the Mediterranean shore that he was unable to add much of importance to our geographical knowledge of a region which has never been explored, and rarely, if ever, visited, by a European. The chief interest of the journey began with the country of the Guela'aya, the tribes who are now fighting the Spaniards. They are five in number, Guela'aya being a collective noun signifying fort people, "gens des forteresses," and could muster at that time about 6,200 men armed with needle-guns. They are skilful mechanics and gunsmiths, being able both to make and repair their weapons, as well as to manufacture powder and mould bullets. Though nominally Mahometans, their religion sits easily upon them. They are wine-drinkers and hemp-smokers, and slay a man with as little compunction as they would a rabbit. Melila, as M. Duveyrier insists the name should be spelt, not in the Spanish fashion, Melilla, was very like Malaga, only more "triste" and far less animated. During his stay in this place he was treated by the authorities almost as a prisoner of war, being regarded as a French spy, and was accordingly unable to make any excursions outside the city. Even had the Spaniards permitted this, it would have been impossible from the hostility of the natives to every foreigner. The Spaniards were at that time repairing the old fortifications, and were building a new wall, on which were mounted four enormous Krupp guns. Of these fortifications he writes somewhat contemptuously as impregnable so long as the assailants are only the Guela'aya.

Can a still, small voice be heard, in the midst of our athletic craze, suggesting that boys as well as girls ought to be thinking of "news of national interest," of the "work of Congress," of current "achievements in all lines of science," of literature, arts, and music, of "new lights on history," of "civil government object-lessons from the nation's capital," of "the march of human activity"? Such seems to be the optimistic view of the projectors of "a real newspaper for the young people of America," the *Pathfinder*, of which the first number will be issued January 6, 1894, at Washington. The scheme calls for a high degree of tact, judgment, and catholicity.

With the November-December number, completing its tenth year, the *Andover Review* suspends publication. The reasons assigned by the editors are the pressure of work, and, more conclusive, the settlement of the issues in which the magazine had its origin. With the "Andover Case" decided in the courts, and the "Noyes Case" in the American Board, and both in the way advocated by the *Review*, it may honorably retire from the field.

"F. E. M." sends us the following correction:

"In your review of 'Memoirs,' by Charles Godfrey Leland, in No. 1483, vol. 57, you say, in speaking of the comic journal *Vanity Fair*, that 'on the breaking out of the war this comic journal expired.' I think you will find that the last number of *Vanity Fair* (volume 7) was issued in July, 1863. The volume was not completed, but only a few numbers issued. Vol. i, No. 1, of this entertaining and witty journal was issued December 31, 1859, and during its comparatively short career it was edited by Frank Wood, Charles Godfrey Leland (some time in 1861), 'Artemus Ward,' and Charles Dawson Shanley, successively."

—The contents of the December *Atlantic* are marked by the conventionality into which all our monthly magazines of amusement and information are in danger of falling. All of the stories are in dialect, and the articles include two on birds and one (a long dissertation) on Japanese æsthetics. Fresher in interest are the letters of Thoreau to his typically English friend, Thomas Cholmondeley, Prof. Kittredge's defence of Chaucer's sense of dramatic propriety in the Pardoner's Tale, and Prof. Woodrow Wilson's attack on the contemptuous attitude of modern education towards "mere literature." In our colleges, Prof. Wilson maintains, "the delicate and subtle purposes of the study [of the essence or spirit of literature] are quite put out of countenance, and literature is commanded to assume the phrases and the methods of science"; science, too, sharply discriminates between the study of "mere literature," *i. e.*, literature proper, and linguistics, or, as Americans say loosely, philology. This charge is not unlike that of Prof. Stoddard, in a recent number of the *Educational Review*, to the effect that college students no longer care for literature. Both charges stand in need of positive proof; in each case the evil is very likely a local one. We doubt if at Harvard or at Columbia—to take as illustrations two somewhat dissimilar institutions about which accurate information is easily collected—there have at any time been a larger proportion of students or a more effective corps of teachers devoting themselves to the study of precisely what we are told is lacking in our colleges. There are signs, too, that the extraordinary prominence given to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in connection with the study of literature is everywhere subsiding, and that linguistics and literature, as ends in themselves, are yearly growing more distinct. It is to be hoped also that the Master's degree, with the opportunities it offers for broad literary culture, may steadily increase in favor.

—Directly in line with the reform which Prof. Wilson advocates, and which we think has already, to a great extent, taken place, is a dictum in another fragment from Lowell's papers published in the current number of the *Century* under the title of "The Five Indispensable Authors," *i. e.*, Homer, Dante, Cervantes, Goethe, and Shakspere. The fragment is in itself remarkable, and the very first sentence states with admirable compactness what both the writers referred to above probably had in mind. "The study of literature," it reads, "that it may be fruitful, that it may not result in a mere gathering of names and dates and phrases, must be a study of ideas and not of words, of periods rather than of men, or only of such men as are great enough or individual enough to reflect as much light upon their age as they in turn receive from it." To this ideal, we repeat, our better colleges have almost without exception held true. In the same number Mr. Cole begins a new series of engravings of the works of the Dutch masters, his first choice from which consists of five paintings of Rembrandt and one of Jan Steen. We have also the opening chapters of "Pudd'nhead Wilson," a new story of Missouri life by Mark Twain. Humorous, also, is an "open" letter from a gentleman who seriously proposes that football should be recognized as a part of the college curriculum.

—The chief articles in the Christmas *Harper's* are a description of the "Old Dominion" and one of the House of Commons. In the "Editor's Study" Mr. Warner propounds a curious dogma when he declares that in America the public is as directly responsible for poor literature as it is "for low and degrading theatrical performances or for sensational newspapers," or for a false monetary standard. If literature means the magazines, as Mr. Howells would have us believe, this statement might in a vague way be true. For periodical literature the public may be responsible, in the sense that, if we all stopped buying the magazines, they would probably no longer be published, and the money invested in them would be put into other enterprises. But even in such cases the fault of bad or mediocre literature lies, not at the door of the people at large, but at that of the managers, who, by an adroit balancing of the gains of advertising and the expenses of publication, can, if they choose, tempt a susceptible public with the wares which they cleverly guess will be popular.

—*Scribner's* prints the first half of a long article on Constantinople by Mr. Crawford, Mr. Marquand's account of his search for Della Robbia monuments in Italy, and an unpublished work by Sir Walter Scott. The last, as Mr. Lang's introduction explains, is a collection of letters supposed to have been written in the reign of James I., which Scott amused himself by concocting in 1821. Part of the material, acting on very sensible advice, he worked over into the 'Fortunes of Nigel.' In the "Point of View" a writer criticises, with some show of reason, the part of Mr. Howells's article on the man of letters as a man of business in which he asserts that the prosperity of the man of letters would be much greater if the "great literary periodicals" were entirely literary—that is, if they printed nothing but "pure literature," instead of diverging into divers other kinds of interesting and amusing matter. As the critic observes, scarcely enough literature

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of the kind Mr. Howells desires could be got together to fill the fifty volumes, reckoning by ordinary standards, which the magazines in question publish every year.

—"L'Europe féodale: Les Croisades," being the second volume of Lavisse and Rambaud's 'Histoire générale du IVe siècle à nos jours' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), follows hard upon the first, reminding us that serials no longer linger luxuriously through a century, appearing just often enough to keep their memories fresh in the families of subscribers, but are turned out as if by the rapidity and remorseless regularity of a steam lathe. The present volume, which deals with a most interesting period in European development, new and strange, but not lying (from dearth of contemporary documents) in the semi-darkness where true learning languishes and false grows wanton, impresses the reader, like its predecessor, by the neatness of its workmanship and the thorough control of the editors. These men know how to make a good book, and that is a gift rarer even than good scholarship. It is significant that English names and titles, commonly the greatest stumbling-block to French —compositors, let us say, are given in the bibliographical lists with accuracy. Moreover, the lists are well up to date: Green's 'Short History,' for instance, is quoted in the illustrated edition now appearing. The influence of the editors does not stop at form: the book is not only written to scale, but its authors have worked from one point of view, with one aim. It is human character, modified by and modifying historical progression, that attracts all these writers. One-fourth of the book, and that the most attractive portion, is devoted to subjects which directly touch the condition of the people—the feudal system (M. Seignobos), the origin and characteristics of cities, the growth of commerce and industry (MM. Giry and Réville), the state of religion, morality, arts, and sciences (M. Langlois); while the chapters dealing with political and ecclesiastical history take frequent note of social changes. The history of all European countries and of Asia is brought down to the close of the thirteenth century. M. Ch. Seignobos, who writes the chapter on the Crusades, thinks that the fashion of attributing to their influence, direct or indirect, most of the changes taking place in Europe from the eleventh to the thirteenth century is ill-founded.

—An appeal has been issued in England and America on behalf of the Asia Minor Exploration Fund. It is addressed to all interested in the history, antiquities, and geography of Asia Minor. The results obtained during the last twelve years are familiar as embodied in Prof. W. Ramsay's 'Church in the Roman Empire' and in his 'Historical Geography of Asia Minor,' as well as in the acknowledgments made by Prof. Kiepert in publishing his new map of Asia Minor. The recent report by Messrs. Hogarth and Munro on 'Modern and Ancient Roads in Eastern Asia Minor,' articles well known to scholars in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, the *Ephemeris Epigraphica*, and various supplements to the Latin *Corpus Inscriptionum* published at Berlin, are all of them indications of the kind of work hitherto done and still remaining undone. If a sufficient sum is raised, it is proposed that Prof. Ramsay and Mr. Hogarth should resume the work of exploration in 1894. First there is the unexplored field of the Euphrates valley, where there are doubtless early monuments, as well as plentiful remains of the Roman frontier defences. Towards investigations in Eastern Cappadocia, the Royal Geographical Society has already made a liberal grant. A reëxamination of certain Phrygian districts is also proposed with a view to complete the data for Prof. Ramsay's 'Inland Provinces of Asia Minor.' Furthermore, the Asia Minor Exploration Fund, if the proper support is forthcoming, proposes excavations which, it must be remembered, have rarely been made in Asia Minor. There have been none excepting on the western coast, and not many sites there have been touched. Lystra would be the first site undertaken. Here was the temple of Jupiter, "before the walls," where worship was offered to Paul and Barnabas. Both Lystra and Derbe, an adjacent site, have been satisfactorily identified; they are uninhabited, and thus more promising and less expensive than Antioch or Iconium. In northwestern Cappadocia, at a place called Eyuk, sculptured slabs can be seen protruding from a mound of débris; here would be a second site, and one interesting for the study of the pre-Hellenic period. Tyana is a third place, with its "Semiramis" mound known to Strabo, and with a large surrounding tract which certainly would yield remains of all periods since. Tyana was one of the most interesting centres of religion and government in Asia Minor. To carry out all these explorations $10,000 would be necessary, but $3,700 would cover the Euphrates plan of work, the investigations in Phrygia and excavations at Lystra. Donations may be sent to the Hon. Sec., G. A. Macmillan, Esq., in care of Macmillan & Co., 66 Fifth Avenue, N. Y.

—In view of the proposal several times made to transplant the entire population of Iceland to one of our Western States, a recent Danish account of the extent of the dread disease of leprosy in that country has a special significance for American readers. While leprosy was introduced into both Denmark and Norway, and from the latter into Iceland, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, it died out (in the first) four hundred years later. Norway has three leprosy hospitals, all in Bergen, where the disease is carefully studied by specialists, to relieve the sufferers and to prevent its further spread. In Iceland no scientific treatment is pursued, and the returns made by the pastors of the different parishes, as a result of personal inquiries only, must be regarded as extremely doubtful and incomplete. These show 128 cases in 1837, 66 in 1847, and 43 in 1872. An attempt is soon to be made, however, to obtain reliable statistics on the subject, a Danish physician, Dr. Ed. Ehlers, having already begun to make preparations to spend next summer in Iceland in order to ascertain the exact condition of the disease there as regards its extent and character. If his anticipations as to its actual extent are realized, the Icelandic transportation scheme will receive a considerable damper.

THE GREEK HORSE.

The Art of Horsemanship, by Xenophon. Translated, with chapters on the Greek riding-horse and with notes, by Morris H. Morgan, Ph.D. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1893.

Prof. Morgan has ingeniously made his book acceptable to widely different classes of readers. He has adorned the treatise of Xenophon with some choice and well-executed illustrations from the antique, adding notes and observations of his own on the Greek horse and the ancient ideal of the horse. Many readers are connoisseurs in the horse who are not connoisseurs in the Greek of Xenophon; and, in fact, this treatise is so sensible, and based on so thorough and sympathetic an acquaintance with the animal it treats of, that it still commands the respect of experts in its main features. No one who looks into the history of horsemanship can afford to neglect it.

Prof. Morgan's commentary and notes will, on the whole, bear the critical eye of horsemen, as his rendering will in general commend itself to the scholar. He notices, among other interesting facts, that the type of horse described by Xenophon corresponds very closely with that which is represented on the Elgin marbles. This is a cobby but spirited and corky creature, with a light and somewhat peculiar carriage of the head and neck. "It is thought by some," says Prof. Morgan, "that Xenophon based his description on these very reliefs, and it is of course possible that they may have served as a sort of guide to his words." Even among these, there are many differences in point of execution; some have faults when judged by Xenophon's canon, and only a few approach perfection. It must be remembered, however, that we have here the handiwork of craftsmen and not of Phidias himself. Prof. Morgan concludes that the horse has been more perfectly represented in modern art than in antiquity; but he warns us that, in this line, no complete work is left of Phidias, and not a trace of the legendary perfections of the painters Micon and Apelles.

The Greek horse was generally smaller than ours and not so tall, yet not so small, proportionately to the rider, as we should infer from the representations of the Parthenon frieze. Here the men are as tall as the horses, or even taller; but this appearance is due to the convention, called *isokephalismos* (misprinted on page 96), which required that in the frieze the heads of the figures should be nearly on a level. The legs of the riders also dangle some distance below the bellies of the horses; but this effect, again, is partly owing to the fact that they could be seen only from some distance below, and that the effect of perspective would alter their apparent length. Making all allowances, however, the evidence of the various works of art proves that the Greek horse was an undersized animal compared with ours, and this evidence is strikingly reinforced by Xenophon's direction, in mounting, "to lay hold of the mane *about the ears*." The size and height, of course, varied, and there is some evidence on Thessalian and Macedonian coins that the breed of these countries was larger than elsewhere. To the Thessalian breed belonged Bucephalas, noted for his size, whose biography is here fully detailed, and whose type, a favorite one in antiquity, is represented in the frontispiece.

As to the ever burning question of clipping manes and tails, Prof. Morgan has a learned dissertation which shows that the practice probably varied, and was more or less a matter of fashion at different periods. Xenophon does not approve of the practice, giving the same pious reasons for his opinion which are generally advanced now by old-fashioned horsemen. The fact that horses' manes were shorn on occasions of mourning (as on the deaths of Pelopidas and Hephæstion) proves, so far, that it was the fashion to retain them in their natural condition. The testimony of works of art might be thought to prove the opposite, for many of these repre-

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sentations show us the mane "hogged." But here again the testimony is conflicting, for many vases and friezes show the mane in its natural condition, and, on the Parthenon frieze, only thirty horses out of a hundred have the mane hogged. This may therefore have been, as Mr. Morgan suggests, an old fashion which was just going out in the time of Xenophon.

The notorious temper of Bucephalas was not altogether exceptional. In this matter it is evident that the Greek horse was seldom what our jockeys call "kind." A great many passages prove this incidentally. Xenophon recommends the use of the muzzle regularly when the horse is led out for exercise or for a roll in the sand, and he gives many directions to the groom as to how he may avoid being kicked and bitten in the stable. In battle, too, the horseman is sometimes whimsically spoken of as an object of pity, "being in danger from his horse as well as from the enemy." This shows clearly enough that there was not that comradeship which now exists between the cavalryman and his steed. Generally speaking, the Greek rider did not regard his beast as a friend. This was partly owing to the less humane spirit of the period, partly, perhaps, to the change that has been since wrought by the continued domestication of the horse. No professional, however, could take exception to Xenophon's precepts for managing the horse, which are remarkably enlightened and modern, and may be summed up as follows: Always keep your temper, try to understand your animal, and reward his obedience with kindness. As to winning his affection for its own sake, this is a counsel of perfection more suited to a treatise on ethics than on horsemanship, and to this height Xenophon does not attain. Indeed, it would not always be easy to attain, as stallions were often used in the cavalry. Moreover, the Greeks did not ride for pleasure, as we do; the horse was associated in their minds with the notion of battle and the contests of the hippodrome, and Mr. Morgan suggests that this may be the reason why there was no love lost between horse and rider. Yet, even in battle and in racing, a mutual good understanding is so desirable that it must have existed to some extent. Pindar mentions with pride the victorious "Pherenicus" who ran without whip or goad; and Cimon's famous team of four mares which won the prize for three successive Olympiads, and were the means of restoring their owner from banishment, must have been well and skilfully tended for many years before they received honorable burial not far from their master's tomb.

We find the translation, generally speaking, as transparent as the original, following it with that closeness which the careful scholar is apt to prefer. When it is not transparent, the original is usually to blame. For example, Xenophon's cautions to the buyer of a horse run as follows (p. 24): "The exercise called the volte shows up a hard mouth, and even more the practice of changing the direction. Many horses do not try to run away unless the mouth is hard on the same side with the road for a bolt towards home." This last sentence is rather a hard saying. The excuse for it is the obscurity of the original. We should suggest "unless the homeward way lies on the hard side of the mouth." In the preceding sentence, Xenophon is evidently talking not only of a hard mouth but of an *uneven* mouth, which is the meaning of ἑτερόγναθος. Mr. Morgan explains in his note: "He seems to mean that if, for example, the stable lies to the right, the horse will throw his head to the left, and, advancing his right shoulder, will make a bolt for it. The left rein being loose and the right side of the mouth hard, the rider will have no control over the animal." This explanation is confirmed by the experience of horsemen, and is undoubtedly correct. The following passage is awkward for a different cause: "But you must beware of horses that are naturally shy. The over-timid let no harm come to the enemy from off their backs, and they often throw the rider and bring him into the greatest danger." But here the perplexity arises from the translator's following too closely the Greek idiom, and neglecting those humble particles μέν and δέ. The sense is, "The over-timid horse not only hinders his rider from harming the enemy with his weapons, but often throws him," etc. In a few cases, Mr. Morgan forgets that the strait-laced English requires a statement or a contrast to be definitely expressed, which the Greek simply suggests to the listener or reader. But these rare slips proceed from a failing that leans to virtue's side—the overscrupulousness of the conscientious translator.

The illustrations are selected with great care, rather for the sake of explaining points in Xenophon's treatise than simply for their beauty. They are drawn from the best sources and are exceedingly well executed and faithful to the originals, surpassing, as we can testify, the photographs ordinarily procurable of the same subjects. In this matter, Mr. Morgan is at his strongest, and his special studies in Greek art and antiquities make his remarks on the illustrations particularly valuable and interesting. On the whole, while gracefully disclaiming any originality for his work, he can hardly disguise the fact that he has stored away in it the results of much careful research, without making erudition a burden to his reader. Some points in his interpretation are new and will commend themselves to the judgment of experts. He has produced a compact little volume of about 200 pages, which, while wearing a certain daintiness of holiday attire, deserves to be treasured on the shelves of the connoisseur in horsemanship, or of the amateur in Greek art and literature.

CABOTIANA.

John and Sebastian Cabot: Biographical Notice, with Documents. By Francesco Tarducci. Translated from the Italian by Henry F. Brownson. Detroit: H. F. Brownson. 1893. 8vo, pp. 412.

We are bound to experience a reactionary fervor, following upon the inordinate warmth sometimes used of late in sounding the glories which humanity has reaped from the exploits of Columbus and the Spaniards. We are doubtless to have a flood of discussion next year (1894) on the date of Cabot's discovery, as starting English and Protestant influences on the current of events in American history. Those who believe with Davezac and Tarducci in the year 1494 as being that fateful epoch, and those who are in the majority and find more evidence to make it 1497, will have their tilts. But there are questions more vital. There are those who, like Mr. Clements R. Markham, deem it essential, in defending the fame of Columbus, to make him the discoverer not only of San Salvador, but also of the mainland, and who contend that Cabot, on his first voyage, saw only an island, and not the continent of North America. Warmer still will be the discussion, started already with trenchant vigor by Mr. Charles Francis Adams—to name no others—whether the planting of Spanish Catholics in middle America was at all comparable in gain to humanity to the beginning of English and Protestant influence, which followed upon the doughty indifference of Henry VII. to the papal bull of demarcation. Even such writers as the present translator of Tarducci feel bound to say that "the world is better, nobler, happier for the discovery made by Cabot," and to ask, "Has any real benefit to mankind resulted from the lands south of us?" It is curious, however, to find Mr. Brownson discriminating between the influences that surrounded Columbus and the reflected character of that personage, when he speaks of the horrors of the early rule of the Spaniards at the South, as resulting "against Columbus's will and in spite of all he could do to prevent it." We might expect such a sentence from a blinded enthusiast, Roselly de Lorgues; but it is hardly creditable to one who would translate and edit a book like Tarducci's. Indeed, Mr. Brownson, in his failure to comment upon palpable slips of his Italian original, does not show that he is master of the details of this kind of study.

The orators who are bound to talk about the Cabotian discovery and make the most of their opportunity in contrasting influences at work in the fifteenth century and their outcome, will find that they can study, if they will, a plenty of critical material for their theme. They must remember that the best elucidations are quite recent ones, and not imitate the Oxfordian Payne, who, the other day, in his 'New World Called America,' showed himself so content with Hakluyt that he had never learned that there were two Cabot voyages. If these orators use the book now before us, they will find much at their service; but they will need to discover that neither Tarducci nor his editor knows all the results of late inquiries. Even Biddle must be corrected by the investigations of Charles Deane and of Harrisse, and, moreover, the correctors themselves must be placed in parallel columns. Mr. Markham, in his last work on the subject, in a recent volume published by the Hakluyt Society, found it essential to remember Mr. Deane's services, which neither Tarducci nor his editors seem to have heard of; nor does the Italian writer know, apparently, what the late Dr. J. G. Kohl accomplished except as a few excerpts from his work are quoted by Harrisse.

Students in this field not infrequently have occasion to notice a certain lack of knowledge in Italian writers of what has been done beyond the Alps, and it is perhaps owing in some measure to the deficiency of Italian libraries, particularly in English and American books. Nor are Italian writers quite possessed of the intuition which comes from close acquaintance to enable them to weigh justly these writers of other tongues. One sees this in Tarducci at times, as for instance when Gravier becomes a gospel to him in matters which you could hardly trust a Norman to be sane upon.

Upon two points respecting the great Cabot map Tarducci has opinions about which there is an abundance of controversial writing. One of these is accepting the date of 1494 for the discovery of Cabot, as against 1497, in which he puts himself down in favor of the earlier date and among the minority of critical scholars. The other point is his acceptance of the legend on the map as placing the landfall at Cape Breton Island, in which he is supported by Deane (not so decidedly, however, as by Markham), while Harrisse argues that the legend is fraudulent, and intended to bar the claims of Cartier for the first discovery of the regions about the St. Lawrence Gulf. The dubious character of the map is recognized both

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by Deane and by Harrisse; but Tarducci does not seem to comprehend the points of doubt raised by those critics.

Another important question in which there is a contrariety of opinion is as to the personal character of Sebastian Cabot, and the fact of his participation in the discoveries of his father, John Cabot. Biddle made a hero of Sebastian and minimized the part played by the elder Cabot. Henry Stevens, in his quaint way, subtracted the father from the son and left nothing. Harrisse, strange to say, starting in the Stevens grooves—which he is not often inclined to follow—has made Sebastian a scamp, and Markham now tells us that Sebastian was not on the first voyage at all. Tarducci is a pretty good champion for the maligned son. With some of the various mooted questions involved in the career of Sebastian Cabot, Tarducci has done well, and he is somewhat frisky at times when he crosses lances with Harrisse. We may certainly thank him for full references and for printing many of the contemporary documents, or the essential parts of them, and the translator enables us to read them all in English.

The book will reach a revised edition, we have little doubt, and the editor will then have an opportunity to correct the various palpable errors of Tarducci. Why, for instance, should anybody repeat the often-expressed statement that no one at Columbus's death supposed the explorer had reached other than the coast of Asia, in the face of Peter Martyr's asseveration of doubt and the unbelief which appears in some of the contemporary maps? When shall we hear the last of that other statement, that La Cosa drew an uninterrupted coast line from Labrador to South America, when he studiously dodged the question of that continuity by interposing a vignette? It is this blind repetition of stock but unfounded statements that is so annoying to a student, and hardly less disagreeable is the commingling of forms of names, as when the editor of Tarducci eschews Amerigo and italianizes the Latin Americus in "Americo Vespucci."

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

SINCE the tales of Weems, many attempts have been made to make the life of Washington interesting to young readers, but without success. The most recent experiment is embodied in 'The Story of Washington,' by Elizabeth Eggleston Seelye, edited by Edward Eggleston, and illustrated by Allegra Eggleston (Appletons). The compiler has followed closely the writings of Washington, and lightened them by a liberal use of tradition and camp gossip, without lending interest to them, while introducing an element that cannot be gauged by, and in fact is often opposed to, historical evidence. The "story" is a bald narrative of the Revolution, and not a study of Washington, and is pitched in that doubtful key—neither major nor minor—which appeals to neither young nor old. Still, it may serve a purpose.

In Hezekiah Butterworth's 'The Boys of Greenway Court' (Appletons) a story is told of one Harry Mendell, who remained through life under suspicion of telling a lie, but was finally exonerated. Washington was one of the boys at the Court, and his youthful adventures are related in his own and Weems's words. There was material here for a story of historical character—Lord Fairfax, Virginia life in the last century, Washington's surveys and mission to the French fort, negro superstition, Morgan's ride, and a number of other incidents, and Mr. Butterworth has fashioned a tale of some interest. It will, however, not excite curiosity in the reader: it is not history, it is not Virginia, it is not Washington. Any names could be substituted for those of Washington, Lord Fairfax, and Rouzé, and would do as well.

The scene of 'Doing and Daring' (T. Nelson & Sons), by Eleanor Stredder, is laid in the geyser country of New Zealand. An English settler arrives with his four children just on the eve of the terrible volcanic eruption of 1886. Their adventures and hair-breadth escapes form the theme of an entertaining story, which is, however, somewhat overloaded with incidents and at times is hard to follow. There are striking descriptions of the rain of mud and the widespread ruin caused by it, as well as of the efforts of the rescuers of the entombed. The account of the Maoris and their peculiar customs is the least satisfactory part of the book. The principal characters are two boys, the English Edwin and the Maori Whero, who are represented as manly, self-sacrificing, capable lads.

The adventures of Kate Douglas Wiggin's newest heroine ('Polly Oliver's Problem: A Story for Girls,' Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) can hardly fail of the sympathy, not only of younger, but even of older readers, who will be apt to fancy, rightly or wrongly, they detect in them an autobiographical ring. Polly Oliver, portrait or fancy sketch as the case may be, after trials and sorrows of an intimately personal nature, makes a successful venture into a hitherto unexplored tract of activity suited to young ladies endowed with fine imagination, a little skill in music, and a pleasing personality. She is sent, in the first place, by a benevolent lady to tell tales two hours each day in the orphan asylums and Children's Hospital in San Francisco, at a salary of twenty-five dollars a month. The success of this venture is so pronounced that she presently invents the plan of telling stories, illustrated kindergarten fashion, by song and drawing, in a private house to groups of children of wealthy parents, at a charge to each child of five dollars for twenty hours. The details of the plan are all so carefully drawn out that any young girl who chooses to consult the volume may find even the toilets appropriate to the private-house story hours sketched with a *modiste's* skill. As a further development of this pretty scheme, a class for child's-nurses is also hinted at, and visions are thereby evoked of the happy future awaiting infant minds when they have been freed from the terrifying or drivelling inventions of the unaided nursery-maid. There are also some hints for ways of becoming what the charity organization societies put down as "benevolent individuals," such, for instance, as "buying up splendid old trees in the outskirts of certain New England country towns—trees that were in danger of being cut down for wood," or putting stamps on the unstamped letters displayed in post-offices and "sending them spinning on their way." There is undoubted suggestiveness in all this, and to remark that judgment is a necessary ballast to suggestion, is merely to fall into a truism never fresher in the mind than in these days of profuse grafting of the old stock; and since it is so much easier to sit in judgment on all ideas than to suggest a new one of even the smallest value, thanks must always be due to the one who can see her way to the ounce of practicability in the hundredweight of objection.

The Century Gallery: Selected Proofs from the *Century Magazine* and *St. Nicholas*. The Century Co. 1893.

THIS publication is in the form of a portfolio. It contains sixty-four prints on paper of a warm tint, with broad margins, favorable to a display of the artistic quality of the work beyond the possibilities of the original publications, with their limited space and necessity for rapid production. Two of the pictures are from "half-tone" plates, and two from zinc etchings after pen-and-ink drawings; the remainder are from wood-engravings, which range in merit from high to the highest. A merely casual view of this remainder awakens a feeling of gratitude that the art of wood-engraving is still practised somewhere. That it has been given sufficient encouragement to maintain the high standard here shown is a most creditable exhibition of liberality on the part of the publishers, when one considers the patient endurance of the public, and the number of cheap makeshifts which might have been used to effect a saving in cost.

Mr. Timothy Cole, although not first on the list, assumes the place of prime importance on account of the number and standing of his subjects. There are nine of these, mostly after works of great masters. As specimens of engraving they display Mr. Cole's conscientious application of his best ability on all occasions. His utter mastery of his means is particularly brought out in the rendering of the "Madonna and Child" after Botticelli; but he reaches his highest attainment in "The Madonna of the Goldfinch," after Raphael. Here is pure line engraving; no help is derived from the white cross-hatch of the wood-engraver, but delicate graduations in sky tones, drawing of draperies, luminosity of flesh, to the expression of the Madonna's sweet, pensive face, are all reached through the medium of a black line as firm and simple as though engraved on copper, yet with a result much more grateful. Mr. Elbridge Kingsley has four subjects: "Twilight," after Rousseau; "The Setting Sun," after Daubigny; "The Wood-Gatherers," after Corot; and "Under the Greenwood," after Inness. His engraving is in very close sympathy with the views of nature here presented, and it is entirely his own, never suggesting the influence of any other person or school. Mr. J. H. E. Whitney also is represented by four subjects, of characteristic excellence. A female head after Maynard, entitled "Daphne," is very strong in its color relations and the variety of textures suggested; in the "Augustus St. Gaudens," after a painting by Kenyon Cox, the skilful drawing and the color of the original are well kept; and the nicely sustained tremor in the line of the silvery gray tints conveys a pleasure aside from that received from the subject. The same may also be said of the St. Gaudens bas-relief portrait of children, after a drawing by Kenyon Cox; the print is a veritable bas-relief with a beautiful line added, to wonder at and delight in.

Of Thomas Johnson's four subjects the "Head of a Man," after Rembrandt, is very striking, partly by virtue of the subject; but this engraver's feeling for drawing, and differentiation of textures, and manner in which he uses Bewick's white-line in picking out drawing and vivid chiaroscuro, are very painterish. Mr. Henry Wolf, one of the most painstaking and faithful of our engravers, is here represented by five subjects, all of considerable importance. Mr. Frank French has three subjects. In the first of these, "In the Beech Woods," the thoughtful English technique of

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Mr. Alfred Parsons is well preserved. Apprehension of the artist's view is the crowning characteristic of Mr. French's work. To see this fully, we have but to pass to the "Izaak Walton," after G. H. Boughton. Sympathetically the treatment has changed its expression to suit the flowery mead wherein good Izaak stands and displays his speckled trophies to two milkmaids. The fluent line so well suited to the rendering of the Parsons is now exchanged for a crisp, free white-line, alive with every suggestion of the lush growth of damp meadows. The entire picture is seriously and studiously treated, but this field of spatterdocks and daisies is delicious. There are five subjects of Mr. William B. Closson's, the best of which are "Sheep Shearers," after Millet, and "The Turkey Pasture," after George Fuller.

Frederick Juengling has a print from "Able to Take Care of Himself," an independent boot-black, after a drawing by William M. Chase. One might almost take it for an engraving by Linton, because of its free use of "pure line." That the subject is not in Juengling's most characteristic manner, may be admitted. Mr. Gustav Kruell has gracefully accepted the mantle of Linton's free line, and with him that Nestor of xylography has no quarrel, for when, in his 'Masters of Wood Engraving,' he takes occasion to belabor the "American development," he puts Kruell out of harm's way by mentioning the fact that he is a German. Now Juengling, a most important figure in that development, was also a German; yet he was severely criticised by Mr. Linton, and in truth the development referred to is mostly American in the sense of its having taken place under American conditions, which seemed to favor it. But above all, an examination of the work of Juengling, Johnson, and Kruell will abundantly show to what an extent the teaching of Mr. Linton's own graver is responsible for a progress in art which he censures. The print by which Kruell is here represented is after a subject by E. H. Blashfield, entitled "His Lordship's Bedtime," in which the influence of his protagonist is very discernible.

Mr. F. S. King has given a very sympathetic rendering of Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's drawing, called "Looking for Camp," a scene in the Far West, with its hills of solitude and far-away sky. No engraver could have transferred more of the spirit of the original into print than Mr. King has done. In his one other subject, "The Eugénie Verdier Rose," after a photograph from nature, he shows fruitful invention and great skill in manipulation. Mr. Robert Collins has the "Ponte Vecchio, Florence," an exquisite translation into wood-engraving of an etching by Pennell. It is a good lesson in the scope of the art of wood-engraving itself, which speaks in the language of every graphic art. To all but the technical etcher this print conveys the free quality of etching with the added charm of reduction. Mr. Wm. Morse's masterly facility is shown in "St. Paul's from Fleet Street," after Pennell.

We cannot particularize further. There are twenty names in this list, which includes a large proportion of the engravers through whose efforts American wood-engraving has reached its proud eminence, and of whom three, Messrs. Juengling, Morse, and Whitney, are no longer with us. In regard to the printing, comparison may be very favorably made with that of the hand-press artist's-proof. Several of the prints are produced in colored ink, and yet others with a tint, doubtless with a view to avoiding monotony; but it can hardly be maintained that they have benefited by this treatment.

Noah Porter: A Memorial by Friends. Edited by George S. Merriam. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893.

It would be a misfortune if this collection of friendly sketches and appreciations should stand in the way of such a biography of Dr. Porter as could easily be written by one skilful in this kind of work. The Rev. Edward A. Smith gives a very pleasant impression of Dr. Porter's manner as a lecturer on theology, its modesty and reserve, so far removed from the dogmatism of the past to which by his affections he was ever closely bound. This was much better calculated to make his pupils think than to impose on them any body of opinion. It is evident that he put forth much more of his strength in the easy conversational talk of his library, where he met his pupils, than in his more formal discourse as a speaker and lecturer or in his books. Mr. Merriam adds at this point some interesting reminiscences. Dr. Porter's doctrine of endless punishment was, like his college discipline, "a rigid code with very mild enforcement." "In short, he maintained that there was everlasting punishment, while he allowed exemption so wide that practically almost every one would escape!" When a pupil asked him, "Suppose a man born so and so, circumstanced so and so, acting thus and thus, how can it be just that he should be subjected to everlasting punishment?" As to each case the answer was promptly given: "Such a man would doubtless not incur the penalty." And when another pupil asked him, "How are we to regard the spiritual prospects of a man like Ralph Waldo Emerson?" Dr. Porter answered, "The Scripture tells us that in every nation he that feareth God and worketh righteousness is accepted with him. I suppose that holds good even in Concord, Mass." He was always more liberal in his practical and personal constructions than in his formal theology. He could be very friendly with the heretics whom he joyed to meet in battle—with Theodore Parker, for example, whose last letter to him is full of tenderness. The date given is July 15, 1859. Evidently from the connection this should be January 15, a few days before Parker left Boston for the West Indies, whence he went to Europe never to return.

Miss Sarah Porter writes all too briefly of her brother's ancestry and youth. Born December 14, 1811, in Farmington, Conn., a place whose habits answered to its name, he had a fair share of industrial education, and his face never outgrew the New England farmer look. Entering Yale in his sixteenth year, he was the smallest and brightest scholar in his class. In the Divinity School he fell in love not only with Dr. Taylor's modified Calvinism—we were damned as much as ever, but not for Adam's sin—but also with his daughter, who came in time to be a grievous invalid, but was always the intellectual and moral companion of his deepest life. The story of his first pastorate at New Milford, Conn., is told in his own words, and they have no special interest except for his adroit avoidance of slavery as a question about which good men might differ and which might therefore be let alone. Like the Boston Unitarian clergyman who waited for God to "turn abolitionist," and was then duly rewarded by a place on the Republican electoral ticket, he was late in coming to the field. He was neither an abolitionist nor a Freesoiler, but joined the Republican party on the eve of victory, and it is written to his credit that the Independents never took him in their snare.

From New Milford he went for a few years to Springfield, Mass.—an important change if for no other reason than that it initiated his connection with the Merriams and opened the way to his editorial work on Webster's 'Dictionary,' through which he probably exerted his most important influence on the culture of his countrymen. His work began with the edition of 1847, and he supervised the great final revision of the 'Dictionary,' and was its salaried editor until his death. In 1846 he went back to New Haven as Clark Professor of Moral Philosophy and Metaphysics. Mr. Merriam's account of this phase of Dr. Porter's life is interesting not only for its bearing on the Doctor's own work, but also for its suggestions of what Yale College was about fifty years ago, when the senior year was spent in happy leisure for the most part, with a single eye to the commencement exercises at the year's end. Dr. Porter was every student's friend. "His manner was like an elder brother's." He found the college professors given over to hearing recitations, and to his conservative temper the need of change did not occur, but it was a method for which he was particularly unfit. He waited so patiently for the answer, he tried so hard to help the stupid and delinquent out, that he had little time for his own exposition. His students were not often strong in study or in recitation. When Dr. McCosh visited his classroom, he said to him afterwards, "Why, Dr. Porter, half the men had their books open behind the seats!" "Oh, well," was the answer, "I am glad to get them to open their books on any terms!" As theological professor he first let the students hear him and then solicited questions, without first fortifying himself from his tobacco-box, as Dr. Taylor had invariably done at this juncture. He was already sixty when, in 1871, he entered on the presidency of the college. His management was eminently conservative, made so less by his distrust of new things than by his optimistic and affectionate attachment to the old. The proposition to change the name of Yale College to Yale University aroused his eager indignation.

Prof. Duncan's outline of Dr. Porter's philosophical system is careful and instructive. The latter was as much opposed to metaphysics as a means of psychological inquiry as Locke or Mill, but equally averse to physiology, save as a kind of foil, a reminder of the absolute incommensurableness of psychological and physiological data. The review of Dr. Porter's ethical system has a special attraction as the work of his pupil, Dr. Rikizo Nakashima, now professor in the University of Tokyo. The substance of his ethical doctrine was that man's cognitive and emotional and voluntary powers are concerned in every moral action, and that there is no special moral faculty to legislate or execute the edicts of morality. But, better than any of these things, and more expressive of Dr. Porter's influence on those who knew him as a teacher or a friend, are the pages which reflect the more personal aspects of his life. The abstractness of his studies took nothing from his humanity, which was ever warm and bright. His personal relations were full of homely pleasantness. Mr. Dean Sage and Rev. J. H. Twichell describe his Adirondack days, and they were not vitiated by Emerson's surprising and uncanny eagerness to kill a deer. He made friends among all sorts and conditions of men, all schools of thought and forms of creed. Dr. Holmes

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could write to him of Calvin as "the Genevan turnspit" and be certain of his smile. If he was slow to give up old methods and beliefs, he was eager for new light. He made his own the saying of Clerk Maxwell, "I assert the Right of Trespass on any plot of Holy Ground which any man has set apart to the power of darkness." Fundamentally he was as much a rationalist as Jonathan Edwards or Theodore Parker—a strange but not unwarrantable conjunction of great names.

A Wild-Sheep Chase: Notes of a Little Philosophic Journey in Corsica. Translated from the French of Émile Bergerat. Macmillan & Co.

Not a few books, in the translator's hands, get out of their own language but never get into any other; they remain there in a mysterious sort of neutral region, suspended, like Mahomet's coffin, between heaven and earth. M. Bergerat's journey, instead of being "little philosophic," was superabundantly philosophic, in his fashion, so that he may not even care very much about the naïve over-literalisms, as above, that reverse the meaning of his title and aim to blunt his witticisms—aim but do not always succeed, for his points are generally good tangible ones, the humor is often in situations rather than witticisms proper, and, with one language or the other, we understand him. Émile Bergerat belongs with Aurélien Scholl and the rest in that set of out-and-out *boulevardiers* who conceive it their mission to keep alive the old sceptical, devil may-care Gallic gayety; they must continue in popular form the irony of Rabelais and Voltaire, and what Maupassant calls "the prodigious laughter of Molière." Their occupation would seem to be to go everywhere in Paris and have an exceedingly good time, to bring out occasionally a little theatrical piece—Bergerat has produced his at all the theatres, from the Comédie-Française to the Théâtre Libre—to fight an occasional duel, to chat for hours at the more luxurious boulevard cafés, and then to go off and write up a sprightly chronique about it all for some newspaper. They succeed best apparently when they have least to say. This type of man being borne in mind, the character of the new book may be understood without going largely into details. It is the *chroniqueur* gone to Corsica, and he laughs and makes skits about the things there that are unlike his boulevard.

He is evidently a good fellow, and good fellows are in demand. Prince Roland Bonaparte asked him to join him in a little trip to Corsica, and he did so. They had, besides, the Prince's librarian, his secretary, and a photographer It will be remembered that Prince Roland is one of the later scions of his great name, who married a daughter of the proprietor of the Casino of Monte Carlo. The Prince of Monaco devotes himself quite seriously to deep-sea dredging; this other magnate of the roulette dynasty does not go quite so far as that, but it is pleasant to see that he abates the enormity of his ill-gotten millions a trifle at least by taking an interest in 'Colomba.' We are assured that Merimée's charming story was the motive-power of his journey. He went to Corsica, not to revisit the homes of his ancestors—though of course, incidentally, he did that too—but to see how the island had progressed since the time of 'Colomba.' The author, truthfully enough in the main, sums up the result of the inquiry in this way (it is a good example of his lively style of putting things): "Corsica, since the time of 'Colomba,' has progressed as far as—'Colomba.'"

It must not be forgotten that they put their guns on their shoulders, too, and went more or less in search of the moufflon. But this chase for the all but apocryphal animal, about which it is a controversy whether he be not quite as much of a wild goat as a wild sheep, was only a facetious one. They never saw him, but what matters your moufflon, they say, so long as you have the chasing of him? M. Bergerat thought the Government did not really want to abolish the vendetta, "because this romantic nonsense attracts travellers to the island, and consequently brings capital." His own tone towards the gentry outlawed on account of these unpleasant affairs is even more liberal. He would speak of a certain district not as infested by bandits, but as infested rather by gendarmes; and he made interest to go and call on the famous Bellacoscia in his stronghold. A great chance for a writer of the realistic sort was here thrown away; this one giving only the sort of statement that might have been made up—by a vague imagination too - without ever leaving Paris. This was all in 1887, and important things have happened in the island since, which leave the account already somewhat antiquated. Paoli's ruinous house has been restored and made his mausoleum, the old Bellocoscia has been semi-amnestied and deported to the mainland, and escaped again and returned, probably to die in his *maquis* in peace. The railroad has been built across the island, and will probably be a potent factor in putting an end to disorders.

Camp-fires of a Naturalist: The story of fourteen expeditions after North American mammals, from the field notes of Lewis Lindsay Dyche, A.M., M.S., Professor of Zoology and Curator of Birds and Mammals in the Kansas State University. By Clarence E. Edwords. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co.

Professor Dyche has passed an interesting life, and his adventures, though not exciting, are full of the romance always associated with out-door activity and the pursuit of wild animals. The son of Western pioneers, nursed by a squaw, pursuing a frontier life without education to the age of sixteen, our naturalist educated himself, and finally attained his present university position. This interesting human document is comprised in a chapter of four pages; the rest of the book is devoted to stories of hunting adventures, told without great art and containing little incident, and much less matter at all instructive to the student of natural history than the book's title would lead one to expect. Prof. Dyche has followed his pioneer instincts and pushed into the deepest woods and most rugged mountains to find his game, led on, if we may judge from what he says, quite as much by a sportsman's instincts as by love for his chosen study. He is evidently a good shot and a good woodsman, and his skill in mounting animals is probably greater than would appear from the accompanying illustrations, presumably taken from specimens of his work. The narrative is written in a rather exaggerated style, which magnifies a thunder-storm into a cloud-burst, and the usual misadventures of camp-life into hardships. A little frontier wit is inserted with scant success, and an attempt made at vernacular which is a distinct failure. Some statements are at least inexact. In speaking of bears the editor makes Dyche say that they do not hibernate in the ordinary sense of the word: "They do not become torpid." Bears certainly do become torpid to a great extent, so much so that it is regarded as no feat by Western hunters and trappers to go into a bear den in winter and kill the occupant. There is a very interesting account of a hunting trip in company with Chippewa Indians, containing a good many suggestions of Indian customs and character.

To sum up, Mr. Edwords may have made the most of his material, but in any case a hunter's field-notes offer a severe test of literary skill as a foundation for a story like this.

L'Ennemi des Lois. Par Maurice Barrès. Paris. 1893.

Another book by the new light, Maurice Barrès. From behind the stalking-horse of a story, slender, nebulous, unreal, unnatural, unpleasant, and Parisian, intended to be Wilhelm Meister-y in flavor, the author aims to make converts to his social theories, by vague reflections upon laws, upon young ladies of the new intellectual type, upon Russian princesses highly emancipated, upon the French reformers St. Simon and Fourier, upon the German reformers Lassalle and Karl Marx, upon Louis II. of Bavaria, upon dogs as companions and as educators of children, upon vivisection, and upon feeling versus thinking. The book produces an artistic impression, but could not well be feebler. One wonders by what courses the author, after he had once resolved to put forward his ideas, could have managed so to reduce his powers of persuasion below the average of thinking men, or, if there be any people whom he influences, what excessively peculiar persons they must be. The doctrine may be classed as sentimental individualism. The proposition is that the time has come to throw off laws—not merely those which are enforced by the tribunals, but every means by which the ideas of the public are made in any respect to dominate the conduct or ideas of the private individual. Especially, all that is traditional should be broken up. The use of language is not disapproved; still, it is traditional, and those only should teach who cannot speak—that is, the "hairy," and particularly dogs. As all thinking rests more or less upon common notions, individual feeling is much to be preferred to thinking. The conduct of people is to be made social through their sensibilities, but is not to be governed by the public will. The last words of the book are:

"For these persons other egos exist just as much as their own, so that the conditions of others' happiness are at one with the conditions of their own; they crush not the flowers they love to breathe. That they should suffer would lessen their own joy. Their refined sensibility suppresses every immorality."

All this is set forth in exaggerated and shocking language. Yet as the author never says he would carry out the principle to its furthest possible limit, nor ever says how far he proposes to carry it, except that he means to carry it further than we now do, there is really nothing new in the substance of the book, nor anything (except an extravagant tone) but what multitudes of sober-minded people would be quite disposed to admit. The truth is, that the essence of what he wishes to inculcate is nothing but a tone, and that tone he contrives to render as disagreeable and as repugnant to good sense and to good taste as the Enemy of Laws' worst enemy could desire. Excessively one-sided works, vigorously executed, have many times done much good by stimulating reflection. They can never do much harm, be-

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cause they convince nobody; they can at most cause those who already entertain the same opinions to speak out. But the present volume can hardly have any effect at all, beyond that of amusing a few people who may like to listen to the praises of Louis II., to analyses of modern libertinism, and to twenty-page dissertations upon St. Simon. The admirers of M. Barrès think him startlingly brilliant and original; his detractors treat him as little better than a vulgar *poseur*. The truth is, he has nothing definitely new to say, but often succeeds in imparting to old ideas a pretty well-emphasized tenor of expression. Here is a specimen or two.

"I say things abruptly, as I feel them. Besides, I agree with everybody who feels anything. No matter for the formulas by which we express our emotion, the important thing is to be warmed by life. If that lady interests herself in what does not interest me, what right or propriety would there be in substituting my feeling for hers?"

"Many of the ideas of St. Simon have filtered into modern Europe: but they have not been improved in their renewal. The industrial system of which he dreamed is just our moneyed society against which the reformers of to-day revolt."

"Clara Pichon-Picard, wonderfully intelligent, saw less accurately into life than the frivolous Marina, who decided all questions under the guidance of a sensuality which is precisely the sense of life."

"They slept, and met in dreams. There was an orchard surrounded by a high hedge, and they walked in procession towards the rising sun, amid children and animals, under the direction of Hairy the Second [a dog], their monitor. All busied themselves with burning their material humors in the open air. To expel the useless, to keep the essential, there lies the whole secret."

"Kennel, stable, hen-house, fish-pond clustered about a peaceful house, a copy of the Museum laboratory [a laboratory of vivisection], but a reversed copy. Here the problem is, not to destroy humble beings for the joy or material benefit of augmenting the sum of knowledge! Here, in an atmosphere purified of all dead ideas, are formed young persons who breathe nothing but what is living, and who develop that new sensibility which the new aspect of the world requires. Yes, here in the open air is a laboratory of sensibility."

The American Girl at College. By Lida Rose McCabe. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE writer of these observations and reflections upon girls at college is an optimist. "Eventually a system [of college gymnastics] compatible with the best development of American physique will be evolved, leading to a race like the Greek prototypes," she remarks. Even this is not all. "As these opportunities broaden, fewer bookworms will infest our colleges, and careless or indifferently dressed able women will be numbered among the traditions of the past." The opportunities that promise this delightful consummation are for nothing less than more "social contact with the flower of Boston courtesy," and still more "vital touch with Philadelphia's most exclusive social life." A certain measure of the last-named felicity is said to be already provided for a fortunate few by women of social culture to be found on the "Board of Bryn Mawr." According to the published circulars of Bryn Mawr College, there are as yet no women on its board of trustees, but this is a mere matter of detail. More important to note are the lapses pointed out in the educational system in general. Thus, "when nature has not given a woman taste in dress it is the duty of education to supply it. The college that overlooks it does not discharge its whole duty." Again, "more attention to the speaking of the Continental languages is an imperative need in American education. There is certainly something radically defective in present methods, otherwise greater results would be secured." Moreover, there are "able educators and many laymen" who would eliminate the scientific course entirely from women's colleges. In the meantime, however, the sciences remain, so that the author is able elsewhere to observe tersely that of the classical, scientific, and literary courses at Barnard and other colleges, "the first leads to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, the second to Master of Arts, the trio to Doctor of Philosophy."

It would appear, too, that those captious persons who have been insisting on Harvard's injustice in thus far granting Annex students no more than an insubstantial certificate, or charging Johns Hopkins with interested inconsistency in bidding women to its dissecting-tables while still forbidding them a seat in literary or historical class-rooms, have, after all, been tilting at windmills. Harvard and Johns Hopkins, no less than Yale and the University of Pennsylvania, are here roundly declared to "have opened their degrees to women on equal footing with men, as quickly as the girls developed the disposition and proved the capacity to meet the requirements of the university curriculum." To attribute wrong intentions to the propounder of these airy fabrications would, however, be entirely erroneous. The head and front of her offending is nothing more than a sublime incapacity to understand the alphabet of what she writes about. Ignorance of educational methods and aims is compatible with many virtues, even with some degree of literary skill, though none is discoverable here; the only condition under which it becomes an unpardonable sin is when it exposes itself to the length of a volume.

A Japanese Interior. By Alice Mabel Bacon, author of 'Japanese Girls and Women.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893.

MANKIND, for purposes of travel, may be divided into two classes. There are the selfish, unthinking, fault-finding people, who know no point of view but their own, enjoy being miserable wherever they live, and will pick flaws in the management of heaven if ever they enter its portals. There are also the intelligent, sympathetic, self-contained people, who know something of the variety of human life and can recognize real virtue and real vice in whatever garb it is concealed, who can measure humanity in different lands by universal standards, and not by the Pharisaic tests of their own nation, creed, or clique. To the former belongs one who has this year finished a month's tour in Japan, to whose astounding lucubrations we shall not give an unmerited publicity by mentioning his name in these columns. To the latter belongs Miss Bacon, whose little book is the most real picture we have yet seen in print of Japanese ways as observable by a foreigner. It contains, as her preface intimates, no profound conclusions, no eloquent descriptions, no careful research. But it furnishes what is in this field even rarer than profundity, rhetoric, or research—an unbiassed and lifelike chronicle of all that one may see and hear in a year's sojourn in that most enjoyable of cities, Tokyo. Space would fail if one were to quote the passages in which one meets just the comment or conclusion which the occasion merits. It is enough to say that the returned sojourner from Japan (provided he is somewhere within the circle of the second sort of people above mentioned) will nowhere find pages in which he can live over again with such relish the experiences, pleasant and unpleasant, of his Japanese holiday. If the spirit of the writer could be communicated to all Americans (we do not add "and English," for that would be hopeless) who intend to travel, the sum of the world's happiness would be much increased.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. $1.
Battershall, Fletcher. A Daughter of this World. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Benton, G. W. A Laboratory Guide in General Chemistry. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $6.
Blennerhassett, Rose, and Sleeman, Lucy. Adventures in Mashonaland. Macmillan. $2.50.
Bolton, C. K. Saskia, the Wife of Rembrandt. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Booth, Josiah. Everybody's Guide to Music. Harpers. 75 cents.
Bridges, Robert. The Humours of the Court, and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bridgman, L. J. Odd Business: High Art in Fun, etc. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Browne, E. G. The New History of the Báb. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Bryant's Poems of Nature. Illustrated. Appletons. $4.
Carlyle, Thomas. Sartor Resartus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Exercises in Rhetoric and English Composition. Boston: Willard Small.
Carroll, Rev. H. K. The Religious Forces of the United States. Christian Literature Co. $2.50.
Cartwright, Julia. Madame: A Life of Henrietta, Daughter of Charles I. Scribners. $3.75.
Chapin, W. O. The Masters and Masterpieces of Engraving. Harpers. $10.
Colby, F. M. Brave Lads and Bonnie Lasses: Stories of Young Folks who have Helped to Make History. Hunt & Eaton. $1.50.
Commons, Prof. J. R. The Distribution of Wealth. Macmillan. $1.25.
Coppée, Prof. Henry. General Thomas. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
Crandall, C. H. Wayside Music. Putnams. $1.25.
Creighton, Louise. A First History of France. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Cummins, Ella S. The Story of the Files: A Review of Californian Writers and Literature. B. Westermann & Co.
Dawson, D. L. The Seeker in the Marshes, and Other Poems. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Rees Welsh & Co. $1.50.
Dennie, John. Rome of To-Day and Yesterday. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.50.
Dobson, Austin. Proverbs in Porcelain. Illustrated. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Dumas, A. The Chevalier de Maison Rouge. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Elliott, Frances M. Old Court Life in Spain. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Outlines of Economics. Hunt & Eaton. $1.25.
Espinasse, Francis. Literary Recollections and Sketches. *Dodd, Mead & Co. $4.*
Evans, M. A. B. In Various Moods. Putnams. $1.
Familiar Letters of Sir Walter Scott. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Fife-Cookson, Lieut.-Col. J. C. Hannibal and Kathana: A Drama. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Putnams. $1.25.
Gaulot, Paul. A Friend of the Queen. Appletons.
Goodyear, W. H. Roman and Mediæval Art. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Gouin, F. A First Lesson in French. London: George Phillip & Son; New York: Scribners. 90 cents.
Grant, A. J. Greece in the Age of Pericles. Scribners. $1.25.
Guild, Curtis. From Sunrise to Sunset. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Harper's Young People. 1893. Harpers. $3.50.
Haynes, Rev. E. J. None Such? There Will Yet be Thousands. Boston: North Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hill, F. S. Twenty Years at Sea; or, Leaves from my Old Log Books. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.00.
Höcker, George. The Tell-Tale Watch. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Holland, Rev. H. S., and Rockstro, W. S. Jenny Lind the Artist. 1820—1851. New and abridged edition. Scribners. $2.50.
Holmes, Kate R. Pictures from Nature and Life. Illustrated. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Ingelow, Jean. A Motto Changed. Harpers. $1.
Kennedy, Walker. In the Dwellings of Silence: A Romance of Russia. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Kennelly, A. E. Theoretical Elements of Electro-Dynamic Machinery. Vol. I. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Kernahan, Coulson. A Book of Strange Sins. Ward, Lock & Bowden. 50 cents.
Kimball, R. B. A Student's Romance. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
King, J. H. Man an Organic Community. 2 vols. Putnams. $4.50.
Kinkel, Gottfried. Tanagra: An Idyl of Greece. Putnams. $1.75.
Kipling, Rudyard. Ballads and Barrack-Room Ballads. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25
Kostromitin, J. The Last Day of the Carnival. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Lees, G. R. Jerusalem. Illustrated. Newcastle-on-Tyne: Mawson, Swan & Morgan.
Lent, W. B. Gypsying Beyond the Sea. 2 vols. Randolph. $4.
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Marshall, Mrs. Emma. Penhurst Castle in the Time of Sir Philip Sidney. Macmillan. $1.50.
McKay, Mrs. Alfred A. A Latter Day Saint. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Michel, Emile. Rembrandt: His Life, his Work and his Time. 2 vols. Illustrated. Scribners. $15.
Morin, L. French Illustrators. Scribners.

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Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine. Vol. I. Salem, Mass.: Eben Putnam.
Reade, Charles. The Cloister and the Hearth. 2 vols. Harpers. $8.
Rousseau, J. J. The Social Contract. Putnams. $1.25.
Russell, W. C. The British Seas. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Sadler, Rev. M. F. The Revelation of St. John the Divine. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Saintine, X. B. Picciola, the Prisoner of Fenestrella. Appletons.
Scott, Sir Walter. The Abbot. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat: New York: Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Scott, Sir W. The Fortunes of Nigel. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Seaverns, Adelaide S. Thoughts for the Thoughtful. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Stoddart, William. Our Boys: What They Can Do and How to Do It. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Swanwick, Anna. Goethe's Faust. First Part. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Swett, Sophie. The Mate of the "Mary Ann." Harpers. $1.25.
Tales from *Town Topics.* No. 10. *Town Topics* Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Tetlow, John. The Eighth Book of Vergil's Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
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The Delectable Duchy. Macmillan. $1.
The Diary of Col. Peter Hawker. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $9.
The Manufacturers of the United States: A Classified and Complete Reference Book for Buyers and Sellers. 4th ed. Manufacturers' Publishing Co.
The Memoirs of James, Marquis of Montrose, 1639–1650. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Thoreau, H. D. Summer. Autumn. Winter: Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each $1.50.
Thompson, F. D. In the Track of the Sun: Readings from the Diary of a Globe Trotter. Illustrated. Appletons. $6.
Truman, Maj. B. C. History of the World's Fair. Chicago: Mammoth Publishing Co.
Twining, Thomas. Travels in America 100 Years Ago. Harpers. 50 cents.
Vallings, Harold. The Transgression of Terence Clancy. Harpers. 50 cents.
Verse and Prose for Beginners in Reading. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Cœurs Russes. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Werner, A. The Humor of Holland. [International Humor.] London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Where to Stop in America and Europe. Boston: Moses King. 25 cents.

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